United Nations A/59/281

General Assembly

Distr.: General
20 August 2004

Original: English

Fifty-ninth session
Item 100 of the provisional agenda*
Advancement of women

Violence against women**

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

The present report responds to General Assembly resolutions 57/179 and 57/181 of 18 December 2002 and 58/185 of 22 December 2003. It provides information about legislative, policy and other measures undertaken by Member States, and by bodies and entities of the United Nations, to combat all forms of violence against women, as well as crimes against women committed in the name of honour. The report also provides an update on the preparation of the in-depth study of the Secretary-General on all forms of violence against women.

* A/59/150.
** The present report was submitted late owing to the need to complete consultations.

04-46559 (E) 240904

Contents

		Paragraphs	*Page*
I.	**Introduction**	1–4	3
II.	**Elimination of all forms of violence against women**	5–34	3
	A. **Legal measures**	6–20	3
	B. **Policy measures**	21–24	6
	C. **Support, capacity-building and research**	25–34	8
III.	**Working towards the elimination of crimes against women committed in the name of honour**	35–45	11
	A. **Legislation and related measures**	36–39	11
	B. **Policy, programmes and other measures**	40–45	12
IV.	**Measures taken in relation to General Assembly resolutions 57/179 and 57/181 within the United Nations system**	46–59	13
	A. **General Assembly**	47	13
	B. **Commission on the Status of Women**	48	14
	C. **Commission on Human Rights**	49–51	14
	D. **Human rights treaty bodies**	52–54	15
	E. **Activities of the organizations of the United Nations system**	55–59	16
V.	**In-depth study of the Secretary-General on all forms of violence against women**	60–63	17
VI.	**Conclusions and recommendations**	64–65	18

I. Introduction

1. In its resolution 57/181 of 18 December 2002 on the elimination of all forms of violence against women, including crimes identified in the outcome document of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, entitled "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century", the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit to it at its fifty-ninth session a comprehensive report on the matters raised therein. In its resolution 57/179 of 18 December 2002 on working towards the elimination of crimes against women committed in the name of honour, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to include in his report on the issue of elimination of violence against women, a substantive report on the subject, based on all available data, containing an analysis of the root causes of those crimes, supportive statistical data, where available, and information on initiatives taken by States.

2. The present report, submitted in response to those requests, is based, inter alia, on information contained in the replies received from Member States and organizations of the United Nations system pursuant to a request of the Secretary-General for information. Section II reflects information received in relation to General Assembly resolution 57/181, while section III reflects information received in relation to Assembly resolution 57/179. Section IV reflects information on related activities within the United Nations system.

3. In its resolution 58/185 of 22 December 2003, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to conduct an in-depth study on all forms and manifestations of violence against women and, on the basis thereof, to submit a report, with the study as an annex, to the Assembly at its sixtieth session. It also requested the Secretary-General to submit a progress report on the study to the Assembly at its fifty-ninth session. Section V of the present report contains the requested update.

4. The report is complemented by the report of the Secretary-General on the trafficking in women and girls, submitted in accordance with General Assembly resolution 57/176 of 18 December 2002.

II. Elimination of all forms of violence against women

5. As of May 14 2004, only 26 Member States[1] had responded to the Secretary-General's request for information on the implementation of General Assembly resolution 57/181. Responses indicated that activities undertaken since the adoption of the resolution had included legislation, and policy measures, as well as capacity-building, awareness-raising and support measures.

A. Legal measures

6. Several States, including Colombia, Costa Rica, Kuwait, Morocco, Paraguay, the Russian Federation and the Syrian Arab Republic, noted their adherence to international or regional human rights instruments, including those that specifically addressed the rights of women.

7. In Austria, the Federal Act on the Protection against Violence in the Family of 1997 authorizes police officers to expel a (potential) perpetrator from the family

home and issue barring orders. Family courts may issue interim injunctions upon application to protect persons at risk, and physicians must report to the police, cases where there is reasonable suspicion that an act punishable by law led to death or serious bodily injury. As of May 2004, new legislation became effective in regard to violation of sexual integrity, including more severe sentences for rape, sexual coercion, sexual abuse of minors and pornography concerning minors, and legal differences in the crime of rape or sexual coercion in marriage or cohabitation were eliminated. Provisions were added to the Criminal Code making punishable the encouragement of prostitution and pornographic acts of minors, as well as sexual harassment and public sexual acts. Legal provisions are in place to prevent post-traumatic symptoms and to protect victims of domestic or sexual violence during criminal proceedings. Amendments to the Equal Treatment Bill and the Federal Equal Treatment Act are before Parliament. They would provide for higher damages for sexual harassment and make the incitement to sexual harassment an offence.

8. Azerbaijan reported that all types of violence against women were dealt with in accordance with the general criminal law. The process of drafting a national law on combating violence against women was expected to be launched in 2004. Bangladesh had enacted the Acid Control Act in 2002, the Prevention of Violence against Women and Children (Amendment) Act in 2003 and the Speedy Trial Tribunal Act of 2002. Special tribunals established throughout the country deal with cases related to violence against women.

9. In China, the Criminal Law, the General Principles of the Civil Law, the Marriage Law, the Law on the Protection of the Rights and Interests of Women, and the Administration Sanctions for Public Order contain specific provisions regarding violence against women. The Criminal Procedure Law and Criminal Code were revised in 1996 and 1997, thereby placing special emphasis on the protection of the rights of women. While a special national anti-domestic violence law has yet to be formulated, the Marriage Law of 2001 prohibits domestic violence. According to article 43, victims of domestic violence have the right to request assistance, and public security organs have the duty to stop such violence. Furthermore, more than 30 provinces and cities have adopted local laws and regulations against domestic violence.

10. In Colombia, the Penal Code contains provisions on violence against women, particularly in relation to prostitution, trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation of minors, pornographic acts of minors and sexual tourism. A draft law on domestic violence entitled "Black Eye", which was before the Senate, provided for prison sentences for from one to three years for persons that had mistreated another family member physically, psychologically or sexually. More severe penalties would apply in cases where the victim was a woman and/or a child. Costa Rica's legislative framework includes the Law against Domestic Violence of 1996 containing protection measures for victims, and the Law against Sexual Exploitation of Minors of 1999.

11. In Denmark, violence against women is covered by the general provisions of the Criminal Code. In June 2002, the maximum penalties for, inter alia, violence against persons and rape had been increased. In an effort to further combat violence against women, a bill was presented to Parliament in March 2004 providing for temporary expulsion from his/her home of a person who had committed or threatened to commit an act of violence against another person of the household. In

2002 and 2003, changes had been introduced in the Aliens Act and the Marriage Act to combat forced marriages.

12. Ireland had enacted legislation to provide that all forms of violence against women and girls would be criminal offences punishable by law, in particular in relation to domestic violence, rape, sexual assault, pornography and prostitution. Italy's Law No. 66 of 1996 qualifies violence against women as a crime against personal liberty. Law No. 154 of 2001 allows for the removal of the violent family member from the household by means of a civil or criminal court decision. Laws Nos. 134 and 60 of 2001 grant free legal advice to indigent victims of rape and abuse.

13. In the Republic of Korea, the Special Act on the Punishment of Domestic Violence and the Act on the Prevention of Domestic Violence and Victim Protection are in effect. The 1994 Act on Punishment of Sexual Crimes and Protection of Victims was again amended in 2003 to enhance protective measures for victims of sexual violence and related crimes. Video testimonies are now allowed as legal evidence for victims of sexual violence who are under age 13, and for victims with disabilities.

14. Malta reported that the Criminal Code treated violence against any person, including women and girls, as a criminal offence, and all reference to violence in the legislation included violence against women. For example, rape or carnal knowledge with violence was dealt with under article 198 and title VIII of the Criminal Code, and carried a higher punishment when committed within the domestic sphere. New legislation was being drafted specifically on domestic violence.

15. Malaysia is implementing the Domestic Violence Act, which considers domestic violence a criminal offence and includes appropriate penalties, and also allows victims to apply for an interim protection order to prevent further acts of violence. The Women and Girls Protection Act 1973 and the Child Protection Act 1991 had been streamlined into the Child Act 2000. The Penal Code had been amended to increase the punishment for offences relating to rape, prostitution and incest.

16. Morocco reported on the revision, in 2002, of its Penal Code and Code of Criminal Procedure, introducing provisions to better protect women. In particular, the definition of violence had been revised to include sexual harassment and to codify the principle of equality in the application of mitigating circumstances in cases of adultery in flagrante delicto. A medical certificate issued by a competent authority now suffices as evidence in cases of domestic or marital violence. The new Family Code aims to ensure equality between women and men within the family, including protecting a woman from abuse by her husband when exercising her right to divorce.

17. Mexico reported that 14 out of the 32 States had civil codes where domestic violence was a valid cause for divorce, and fewer than half of those codes considered violence against children a valid cause for divorce. Laws to prevent domestic violence existed in 25 of the 31 federal entities. Norway reported that domestic violence constituted no specific offence, and violent attacks in the private sphere, including assault, bodily harm and rape, were dealt under the general provisions of the Penal Code. Free legal aid was available to abused women as well as women victims of domestic violence from spouses and cohabitants. Since 1988,

cases of domestic violence may be brought before the court even if the woman withdraws the formal report. The Criminal Procedure Act, which was amended in 1995 and again in 2002, provides that a person may be banned from staying in his own home, or from visiting, if there is an imminent risk that he may commit a criminal act against another person.

18. Article 60 of Paraguay's Constitution establishes the regulatory framework for domestic violence, and Law 1600 of 2000 deals with domestic violence. Portugal plans to revise legislation to facilitate the prosecution of aggressors as well as the access to legal counselling. While discussions had taken place in the Russian Federation to formulate a special act against domestic violence, the approach chosen instead was to improve existing legislation such as the Federal Act "on the principles of social services for the population in the Russian Federation", the Criminal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure, the Code on Administrative Offences and the Militia Act. The Criminal Code contains a special chapter on criminal liability for crimes against the sexual inviolability and sexual freedom of the individual, and punishments for such acts, including rape.

19. Syrian legislation affords protection to women against all acts of violence and injustice and deals harshly with perpetrators of such acts. Ukraine adopted, in 2001, a new Criminal Code which includes penalties for crimes against the sexual freedom and sexual inviolability of the individual, including rape, forced and perverted satisfaction of sexual passion, sexual coercion, sexual relations with a person who had not reached sexual maturity, and corruption of minors. In 2001, the Act "on the prevention of domestic violence" had been adopted establishing legal and organizational foundations for the prevention of domestic violence, and containing a definition of domestic violence as well as providing for perpetrators' criminal, administrative or civil liability.

20. The Austrian Criminal Code defines female genital mutilation as an offence of bodily injury with severe after-effects to which consent of the injured is not possible. The Code stipulates that regardless of the consent of a victim, the person performing the operation remains liable to punishment. In addition to the perpetrator, each person inciting another person to carry out the act or contributing in any way to its execution is also punishable. Denmark amended its criminal code in May 2003 to include a separate provision — section 245 (a) — on female genital mutilation. The Code now expressly states that consent to female genital mutilation, either by the girl or by the parents, can under no circumstances lead to exemption from punishment of perpetrators. The requirement of so-called dual criminality in relation to this practice was abolished, making it possible to punish Danish nationals as well as persons resident in Denmark who had performed or who had assisted in performing female genital mutilation abroad, even when this act was not a crime in the country where it was performed. Section 245 (a) provides for a maximum penalty of six years imprisonment. Portugal was planning to introduce the explicit criminalization of female genital mutilation and to improve health care for women and children victims of this practice.

B. Policy measures

21. Several Member States reported on the implementation or elaboration of new national action plans to combat violence against women. Bangladesh had formulated

national action plans in relation to the critical areas of concern in the Beijing Platform of Action.[2] In Colombia, the strategic plan executed by the Presidential Advisory Office on Women's Equity also contains a focus on violence against women. In Costa Rica, public entities and non-governmental organizations had implemented the national plan on domestic violence. Denmark had launched its national plan to combat violence against women in 2002, with a focus on victim support, violence prevention, and research and awareness-raising. In August 2003, it issued an action plan on forced, quasi-forced and arranged marriages, 2003-2005. Finland was preparing a new national plan of action for preventing domestic violence against women, for implementation from 2004 to 2007. All activities contained in Germany's national action plan to combat violence against women, adopted in 1999, had been initiated and most had been completed. The plan covered prevention, legislation, cooperation and networking between government institutions and non-governmental organizations, awareness-raising and international cooperation.

22. The Jordanian National Commission for Women coordinated a programme of national action which had been launched in 2003. The Mexican national plan on the eradication of domestic violence, in place since 2002, includes prevention, treatment, information and assessment measures. Morocco continued to operationalize its national strategy against violence against women of 2003. Norway's plan of action against domestic violence, 2000-2003, included establishment of an interdepartmental group responsible for its implementation. A new plan of action for 2004-2006 was scheduled to be launched in May 2004. Paraguay's national plan on prevention and punishment of violence against women is implemented by an inter-institutional commission and a national network focused on domestic violence. Portugal's second national plan against domestic violence was approved in 2003, for implementation until 2006, and includes aspects of prevention, training, legislative reform, victim support, and research. The Syrian Arab Republic is implementing the national strategy for women to the year 2005. In the Russian Federation, the national plan on the improvement of women's status 2001-2005 includes measures to prevent domestic violence. In Ukraine, the national plan 2001-2005 focuses on implementation of the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly entitled "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century".[3]

23. Costa Rica, Iceland and Ireland had strengthened national mechanisms to effectively implement national action plans on violence against women. In Costa Rica, 23 new offices that formed part of the Women's Municipal Network had been established. These offices aim at promoting women's human rights at the municipal level, disseminating information about government programmes on domestic violence, and expanding the access to services and assistance to victims of domestic violence. In 2003, the Minister of Social Affairs of Iceland had appointed a committee tasked with coordinating measures to combat violence against women. In Ireland, regional committees and advisory entities had been established under the National Steering Committee on Violence against Women. Colombia, Jordan, Malaysia, Mexico, Paraguay, Portugal and the Russian Federation reported on cooperation, and the creation of networks, between government agencies, local-level institutions, academia and non-governmental organizations, to address violence against women, and to implement national action plans and awareness-raising campaigns. Saudi Arabia indicated that while there had been no recorded cases of

violence against women, a social protection administration and a national family commission would be established to combat all forms of violence against children and women.

24. Mexico reported on the results of parliamentary debates concerning the killings of women in Ciudad Juárez that had led to the establishment of the Commission to Prevent and Eliminate Violence against Women in Ciudad Juárez, the Agency for Attention to the Murders of Women of Ciudad Juárez (Agencia mixta para atención de homicidios de mujeres de Ciudad Juárez), special commissions aimed at following up on the cases in Ciudad Juárez in both chambers of Congress, and the appointment of a Commissioner with the responsibility for coordinating the various federal actions and plans. Mexico had also allocated funds to further investigate the cases.

C. Support, capacity-building and research

25. Member States had carried out campaigns to raise public awareness about domestic violence and discriminatory practices against women. In China, the fourth legal awareness-raising campaign was under way. News media had increased their coverage of violence against women, in some cases providing live broadcasts of trial proceedings, inter alia, on domestic violence. A television serial drama about domestic violence in 2002 had drawn attention to the issue. In Denmark, a nationwide campaign entitled "Stop violence against women: break the silence", in Danish and four foreign languages, had been the largest of its kind ever. Ireland had conducted campaigns on the availability of help for victims, on violence against women as a crime, and on changing societal attitudes with regard to violence against women. Malaysia had launched a "Women against violence" campaign in 2001 and had embarked on a "Stop rape: respect and restrain" campaign in 2004. Mexico had launched a number of campaigns aimed at eliminating stereotypes and forms of discrimination against women, inter alia, in local languages.

26. Several countries, including Denmark, Ireland, Portugal and the Russian Federation, reported on anti-violence efforts implemented through the educational system. States, including China, Costa Rica, Italy, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Norway and the Russian Federation, had continued to organize seminars and conferences where academics, policy makers and non-governmental organizations sought ways to prevent and eradicate various forms of violence against women. For example, Italy had organized an international conference in 2000 on the health consequences of violence against women and on health-care and prevention strategies.

27. Member States also continued to produce brochures, leaflets and other publications to raise awareness about violence against women and to provide information on the availability of resources for victims of violence. For example, Denmark had prepared and distributed leaflets in Danish and five foreign languages on the rights of, and services for, battered women. Guidelines for dealing with domestic violence, which now formed part of comprehensive tool kits for professionals, had also been produced. Finland had published a brochure in 2003 to support crime victims through provision of information about the different stages of the legal process in criminal matters, legal aid, compensation and support services. Ireland had produced several information leaflets and, in 2000, published a national

directory of services for women who had been victims of, or threatened by, violence. Mexico had published educational materials entitled "Against violence: education for peace" for the second time in 2001.

28. Austria provided training to all occupational groups who were in contact with victims of violence to assure the high quality of counselling services. Azerbaijan trained teaching staff at the National Police Academy on violence against women. In China, a manual on violence against women had been created to train public security officers and law enforcement officials. Finland had implemented training activities for the authorities on the recognition and prevention of violence against immigrant women. In Iceland, the general training of police officers at the Police Training College included the handling of domestic and sexual violence cases. Italy organized courses at the police academy on violence against women and minors. In Mexico, a manual on violence against women had been published for trainers from the health sector. Morocco provided training courses on human rights to judges, health officials and law enforcement officials. Ukraine offered training courses for the general public on non-violent methods for resolving problems in the household. Malaysia, Portugal and the Russian Federation reported on training activities for personnel providing services to victims of violence.

29. Many Member States, including Austria, China, Costa Rica, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Jordan, Malaysia, Malta, Mexico, Morocco, Norway, Paraguay and Portugal, had strengthened and expanded the availability of shelters and specialized centres for victims of violence, as well as legal, medical and psychological assistance and counselling, and of support networks. In some instances, Governments also reported on their financial support to non-governmental organizations for the provision of support services. For example, in China assistance for women victims of violence had been enhanced through reduction or waiving of legal fees for poor women. Since 1996, 2,389 governmental legal assistance bodies at the central governmental, provincial, county and municipal levels throughout the country had been established. In Iceland, the emergency reception facility for victims of sexual assault at the National University Hospital was also used to treat victims of domestic violence. A women's refuge also offered counselling to victims of domestic violence. In Denmark, a nationwide network for battered women had been established in 2003 as a means of providing support and advice to women who chose not to contact a shelter. In 2004, Jordan had authorized the establishment of a system of family shelters; and a non-governmental women's organization had founded the first shelter for women victims of violence, and governmental and non-governmental institutions promoted counselling and support programmes. Malta had set up a victims support unit within the police force, and offered support services, including a shelter, for women victims of violence. In Malaysia, one-stop crisis centres had been set up in many hospitals to provide treatment for victims of violence, and shelters, counselling and support services were also available for battered and abandoned wives. In Portugal, women's shelters were run mostly by women's non-governmental organizations with government support. Austria, Denmark, Mexico, Morocco, Portugal and the Russian Federation reported that hotlines continued to provide counselling, and legal and psychological assistance to victims of violence, sometimes also in foreign languages.

30. Several Member States, including Austria, Denmark, Ireland, Malta and Norway, had also focused attention on the perpetrators of violence as a means to

protect victims and prevent further acts of violence. Austria and Ireland were conducting evaluations and studies of completed programmes in order to identify best practices, implement necessary improvements and establish standards for future programmes. Ireland reported that 29 full-time professionals and two consultants had been involved in rehabilitation programmes for sex offenders in Irish prisons. An evaluation of all programmes for perpetrators of domestic violence funded by the State was under way and the results were expected for 2004. Norway had completed a survey on the effectiveness of treatment methods for men in 2002.

31. Since 2003, Denmark had offered assault alarms to women victims of violence at specific risk of repeated violent assaults. The evaluation of this initiative will be available in 2004. Norway had supplied such security alarms to women since 1997, and the alarm project became permanent in 1999, following a survey showing its unqualified success. Since 2002, new mobile alarms based on Global Positioning Systems had been tested, and these alarms had become available to all who needed them, as of January 2004.

32. In Italy, a research project entitled "Anti-violence network of urban towns in Italy" had been launched in 1998 to analyse violence in particularly degraded areas. In Ireland, the National Crime Council was conducting a national study on domestic violence, scheduled for completion in 2004. The national strategy of Morocco included the development of scientific studies on sex-specific violence. In Mexico, a national survey of 24,000 women users of support services had been conducted in 2003 to identify causes and consequences of domestic violence. In Portugal, two studies, on women victims of gender violence and the social costs of domestic violence, were under way.

33. Several Member States reported on efforts to combat violence against immigrant women. In Austria, special provisions for female migrants exposed to domestic violence made it possible for lawfully established foreigners to obtain a work permit, under certain conditions, if the victim could not be expected to continue living with her spouse as the result of an assault, threat of assault, or the conduct of the spouse. In Denmark, a major survey had been initiated of the experiences of shelters in supporting and advising women from ethnic minorities. The results will be used to train shelter staff in better supporting this group of women. In Finland, a report on violence against immigrant women had been published in 2003. Portugal had developed specific guidelines to combat violence within migrant communities.

34. Some Member States addressed the question of data collection on violence against women. Denmark, as part of a major "International violence against women survey", had collected data from a sample of 3,600 Danish women. Statistics on victims were incorporated for the first time in the crime statistics for 2001. Italy reported that data on violence and harassment had been gathered from hotlines at anti-violence centres and women's shelter homes. The results of a survey of victims and perpetrators to estimate the dimension of sexual violence against women within the domestic and work spheres would be analysed in 2005. In Mexico, a national household survey in 2003 had indicated that 46.6 per cent of interviewed women had suffered from some form of violence. Norway reported that no statistics relating directly to domestic violence were available. However, according to a national survey conducted in 1997 by the Central Bureau of Statistics, 6 per cent of adult women had experienced violence from a family member, and 1 per cent had

experienced such violence during the previous year. Paraguay gave an indication of the types and numbers of complaints of violence against women received by the national machinery for women between 1993 and 2003. In Portugal, data on violence against women had been collected from 2001 court cases. Data on violence against women collected by the Office of Legislation Policy and Ministry of Justice Planning had been used to design the new Second National Plan against Domestic Violence. In the Russian Federation, the Ministry of Internal Affairs would produce statistics on crimes broken down by gender, and the Ministry of Health would provide statistics on sex offences against women based on data from forensic examinations. Statistics would also be collected, as of 2004, on the number of persons using social service agencies, including users who were victims of criminal sexual assault.

III. Working towards the elimination of crimes against women committed in the name of honour

35. As of 14 May 2004, only 23 Member States[4] had responded to the Secretary-General's request for information on the implementation of General Assembly resolution 57/179.

A. Legislation and related measures

36. Several Member States indicated that crimes committed in the name of honour did not exist, or were not known to exist, and that no specific legislation covered this type of crime. In some countries, including Azerbaijan, Colombia, Denmark, Ireland, Malaysia, Malta, Mexico, Morocco, Myanmar, the Netherlands and Portugal, no distinction was made between crimes committed in the name of honour and other crimes of violence against women, and all crimes were dealt with under the relevant provisions of the criminal code. The Syrian Arab Republic noted that Syrian society did not suffer from the so-called crimes of honour addressed in a selective manner in the resolution, which had not shed light on other forms of violence and crimes committed against women.

37. In Argentina, violent emotion had been recognized in recent court decisions as a mitigating circumstance in "crimes of passion" committed by either a man or a woman. In Colombia, crimes committed by a spouse, partner, cohabitant, relative or family member carried a heavier punishment than crimes committed by persons not related to the victim.

38. Jordan placed great importance on confronting violence against women in all its forms, and had taken steps to reduce the incidence of violence against women in general and "crimes of honour" in particular. Provisional law No. 86 of 2001, albeit not yet approved, had revised article 240 of the Penal Code by abolishing the impunity defence and replacing it with the mitigatory defence. Kuwait reported that crimes against women committed in the name of honour were infrequent. Kuwaiti law therefore did not contain the term "crimes of honour". Nevertheless, article 153 of the Penal Code provided for a prison term of not more than three years and a fine of not more than 3,000 rupees, or one of these two penalties, for a man who had killed his wife in the act of committing adultery (in flagrante delicto), or the man, or both. Similar penalties applied for the killing of a daughter, mother or sister

surprised in such a situation. An unlawful act or attack on a woman, whether it involved killing or bodily harm, motivated by the claim of defence of honour constituted a criminal offence and was punishable by law according to its nature.

39. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland actively worked on combating domestic violence in all its forms, including honour crimes. A domestic violence, crime and victims bill that included measures to enhance the protection of victims of domestic violence was before Parliament.

B. Policy, programmes and other measures

40. In the Netherlands, a policy and measures were being developed to provide greater insight into the nature and scale of crimes committed in the name of honour and honour-related violence in the country, to support the integration and emancipation of women and girls from ethnic minorities, and enhance their awareness of their rights, inter alia, in relation to honour crimes. Sweden, as part of its immigration and integration policy, had developed guidelines to give more adequate attention in the asylum process to women's need for protection, and as part of the implementation of those guidelines, personnel had been trained regarding the concept of honour. Assistance was provided to Swedes in distress abroad, including girls and young women abducted for forced marriages abroad, and their return was facilitated.

41. In Argentina, the Association of Women Judges of Argentina had implemented a programme entitled "Towards a jurisprudence of equality" in the period 1998-1999, aimed at capacity-building of the judiciary with regard to the application of international conventions, in response to judges' discriminatory practices of reducing penalties for perpetrators of "crimes of passion". Finland had implemented training for public officials enabling them to better recognize and prevent violence against immigrant women including the threat of so-called honour killings. The Netherlands supported capacity development for law enforcement professionals and support service providers to address the topic of domestic violence, including honour crimes, with minority groups. In the United Kingdom, the Metropolitan Police Service worked actively on the issue of crimes committed in the name of honour. In May 2003, agencies from voluntary sectors, local authority representatives, academics, legal professionals, women's groups, community groups and faith organizations had attended a seminar for the purpose of sharing information and best practices and developing solutions regarding honour crimes.

42. Myanmar reported on activities aimed at preventing all forms of violence against women, including awareness-raising campaigns, establishment of counselling centres, and training for social workers. Sweden had provided funding for educational, information and awareness-raising materials. Funding had been provided for the conduct of research and surveys to increase knowledge about various aspects of gender equality, especially in relation to immigrant communities. Seminars had been conducted, bringing together representatives of public authorities, religious communities, women's shelters and immigrant organizations and other experts.

43. The Government of the Netherlands supported and provided funding for civil society initiatives, such as the Turkish Community Advisory Association, which had recently published a handbook prepared to help social workers recognize and report

honour-related violence. Sweden had provided funding in past years for sheltered housing and other measures for girls and women at risk of honour-related violence, as well as for capacity-building for social service providers and educators, and for awareness-raising in communities where thinking in terms of honour was common. It had also continued to fund a support network for immigrant women, including operation of an emergency telephone service in some 20 languages. The Government had earmarked 100 million kronor for further action in the period 2004-2006.

44. At the international level, the role of the Netherlands in this field was reflected in its tabling of General Assembly resolution 57/179 in 2002. Sweden had hosted an international expert meeting in November 2003 on crimes committed in the name of honour, and planned to hold an international conference on the topic in December 2004. The meeting would aim to formulate a plan of action against violence in the name of honour for action at the national and international levels.

45. Jordan reported that, according to official surveys, the number of crimes committed in the name of honour had decreased to 17 in 2003 compared with an average of 20-25 cases per year in the past. The Netherlands noted that, while there had been crimes committed in the country in the name of honour, the number of those crimes was not known, and murder statistics did not reflect the motive. Two recent murders, in 2003 and 2004, where honour was presumed to have been a motive, had been highly publicized. In 2003, the Government had supported a research centre, TransAct, in conducting a quick-scan on the occurrence of crimes committed in the name of honour in the Netherlands. Those results had not yet been published. Saudi Arabia had no recorded cases of violence against women or of crimes committed against women and girls in the name of honour.

IV. Measures taken in relation to General Assembly resolutions 57/179 and 57/181 within the United Nations system

46. The General Assembly, the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council, human rights mechanisms and other entities continued to devote attention to violence against women, including crimes committed in the name of honour.

A. General Assembly

47. During its fifty-seventh and fifty-eighth sessions, the General Assembly had addressed the issue of violence against women in several resolutions (see, for example, resolutions 57/176 of 18 December 2002, 57/179 and 58/137 and 58/147 of 22 December 2003). Violence against women had also been an aspect of many other Assembly resolutions (see, for example, resolutions 57/189, 57/200, 57/218, 57/225, 57/230, 57/231, 57/233 and 57/234 of 18 December 2002; and 58/146, 58/156, 58/164, 58/190, 58/191 and 58/196 of 22 December 2003).

B. Commission on the Status of Women

48. The Commission on the Status of Women dealt with the topic "Women's human rights and the elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls as defined in the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly" at its forty-seventh session (2003), without adopting agreed conclusions thereon.[5] References to certain forms of violence against women are contained in the agreed conclusions adopted by the Commission at its forty-seventh session on the theme of "Participation in and access of women to the media, and information and communication technologies and their impact on and use as an instrument for the advancement and empowerment of women" (see Economic and Social Council resolution 2003/44 of 22 July 2003). References to violence against women were also contained in the outcome of the Commission's forty-eighth session (2004), inter alia, under its two thematic issues dealing with "The role of men and boys in achieving gender equality" (see Council resolution 2004/11 of 21 July 2004); and "Women's equal participation in conflict prevention, management and conflict resolution and in post-conflict peace-building" (see Council resolution 2004/12 of 21 July 2004), and in resolutions on the situation of women and girls in Afghanistan (see Council resolution 2004/10 of 21 July 2004), and on the release of women and children taken hostage, including those subsequently imprisoned, in armed conflicts.[6]

C. Commission on Human Rights

49. A meeting of women foreign ministers took place on 15 March 2004, on the margins of the session of the Commission on Human Rights, on the subject of violence against women. During the Commission's high-level segment, many foreign ministers and dignitaries condemned ongoing violations of the rights of women around the world and violence against women, including domestic violence, trafficking in persons, harmful traditional and customary practices, and violence against women during armed conflict.

50. At its fifty-ninth (2003) and sixtieth (2004) sessions, the Commission on Human Rights had adopted resolutions on violence against women (resolutions 2003/45 of 23 April 2003 and 2004/46 of 20 April 2004) which also referred to crimes against women committed in the name of honour, and on violence against women migrant workers (resolution 2004/49 of 20 April 2004). Violence against women was also covered as an aspect in other resolutions, including Commission resolutions 2003/15 of 17 April 2003, 2003/16 of 17 April 2003, 2003/51 of 23 April 2003, 2003/54 of 24 April 2003, 2003/78 of 25 April 2003, 2004/13 of 15 April 2004, 2004/45 of 19 April 2004, 2004/48 of 20 April 2004, 2004/55 of 20 April 2004, 2004/79 of 21 April 2004, 2004/80 of 21 April 2004, 2004/82 of 21 April 2004, 2004/83 of 21 April 2004 and 2004/84 of 21 April 2004.[7]

51. Several special rapporteurs of the Commission on Human Rights continued to address the question of violence against women specifically, for example, the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, or to include this issue as an important aspect of their particular mandate. The Subcommission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights also continued its work in relation to particular aspects of violence against women, inter alia, on

systematic rape, sexual slavery and slavery-like practices, on harmful traditional practices affecting the health of women and the girl child, and on women in prison.

D. Human rights treaty bodies

52. The six (now seven[8]) treaty bodies established under international human rights instruments also continued to address violence against women within the framework of their mandates, and especially in the constructive dialogue with States parties, concluding comments/observations and other aspects of their work.

53. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women consistently monitors steps taken by each State party to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (General Assembly resolution 34/180, annex) during the constructive dialogue to prevent violence against women, punish perpetrators and provide support for victims, in accordance with the Convention and the Committee's general recommendation 19 on violence against women.[9] This was also the case during the Committee's sessions in 2003 and 2004.[10] The Committee's concluding comments regularly stress the need for comprehensive measures to address violence against women in the family and in society, including recognition that such violence, including domestic violence, constitutes a violation of the human rights of women under the Convention, and the need for zero-tolerance policies. The Committee also focuses on sexual harassment in the workplace and in institutions of learning. The Committee encourages States parties to adopt legislation on domestic violence, and to ensure that violence against women is prosecuted and punished. It calls for immediate protection and redress measures for women victims of violence, including protection or restraining orders, access to legal aid, and availability of sufficient numbers of shelters for women victims of violence. The Committee further encourages States parties to ensure that public officials, especially law enforcement officials, the judiciary, health-care providers and social workers, are fully sensitized to all forms of violence against women and skilled in adequately responding to them. It calls for the implementation of awareness-raising campaigns in different media, and public education programmes. The Committee also calls for better data collection disaggregated by sex and information on the nature and scope of violence against women, inter alia, within the family. The Committee encourages implementation of special programmes to support vulnerable groups of women victims of violence, such as migrant women, older women and women belonging to ethnic minorities.

54. The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination addressed issues including the practice of female genital mutilation, domestic violence against indigenous women, trafficking of foreign women for the purpose of prostitution, and forced prostitution of girls and women belonging to minority castes. The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights considered issues including sexual exploitation of women, domestic violence, rape and sexual harassment, child pornography and sexual exploitation of women, and sexual crimes committed abroad. The Human Rights Committee addressed violence against women generally, and in particular domestic violence. The Committee on the Rights of the Child systematically addressed forms of violence against women, and in particular those suffered by girls. The Committee against Torture also referred to violence against women.

E. Activities of the organizations of the United Nations system

1. United Nations

55. Several peacekeeping missions continued to implement, or had initiated, measures to address violence against women, including the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL), the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC), the United Nations Mission of Support in East Timor (UNMISET), the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA) and the United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK).

56. The UNMIL gender unit raises awareness about violence against women, and plans to train all UNMIL personnel on gender issues and gender-based violence. United Nations entities, as well as national and international non-governmental organizations, are collaborating in a working group on sexual and gender-based violence which also supports programme implementation, and undertakes awareness-raising, preventive action and training programmes. The gender office of MONUC works with local partners on initiatives to eliminate sexual violence. A strategy to address sexual violence was put in place in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 2003, involving local and international non-governmental organizations and United Nations entities, in collaboration with the Government. The office, in collaboration with the Ministry of Women's Affairs, had also facilitated a national campaign and disseminated material on sexual violence. UNMISET supports the Government's programme on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, inter alia, through a series of training workshops for government officials from various Ministries including the Office of the Promotion of Equality, district administration personnel and staff of some non-governmental organizations. The Human Rights Unit of UNMISET had conducted 25 workshops in 10 districts, and a three-day workshop directed at non-governmental organizations on gender-based discrimination and violence against women. The weekly radio programme conducted with the support of UNMISET regularly focuses on violence against women. UNAMA addresses the issue of violence against women by providing assistance to the Government and coordinating and assisting the work of United Nations organizations. Together with other United Nations entities, it provides support to the Independent Afghan Human Rights Commission in the implementation of its programmes areas, namely, monitoring and investigations, human rights education, women's rights, children's rights and transitional justice. UNMIK provided assistance to victims of violence through the Victims' Advocacy and Assistance Unit (VAAU), created in December 2001, including information regarding legal action and resources, logistic support, medical and psychosocial services, shelters, and measures aimed at preventing violence against women. Workshops directed at health and police officials have been conducted, as have awareness-raising activities. Following promulgation by UNMIK of Regulation No. 2003/12 on the "Protection against Domestic Violence", VAAU developed forms for petitions and for protection orders and distributed them to judges and prosecutors.

2. The specialized agencies and other entities

57. Several of the country offices of the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) are concerned with commercial sexual exploitation of children and

women, early marriage, and female genital mutilation. They have conducted research on these and related topics, implemented workshops bringing together relevant actors, and supported implementation of national strategies. Training has also been conducted, especially to protect women and children from sexual exploitation and abuse in humanitarian crises situations, and HIV/AIDS. UNICEF also supported the drafting of legislation concerning sexual violence, child abuse and commercial sexual exploitation; and supported work to combat crimes committed in the name of honour in several countries.

58. The work of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) on violence against women was carried out through the Safer Cities Programme. Activities have been undertaken in more than 10 cities with a focus on women's safety audits, surveys and improved participation of women in local decision-making, and a strong focus on community participation. Among the results achieved have been positive changes in the urban design of targeted neighbourhoods, and increased awareness of city officials concerning their role in combating violence against women. UN-Habitat has also collaborated with other United Nations entities, and has published several reports and studies. A second International Seminar on Women's Safety in Latin America is planned for 2004-2005, with the aim of formulating a regional strategy on violence against women and the development of a network of cities.

59. The World Health Organization (WHO) multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women is the first to gather data on the prevalence of violence against women and women's health that are comparable cross-country. The first results will be available later in 2004. WHO has produced guidelines for medico-legal services for victims of sexual violence which are designed to enable health-care workers to provide comprehensive care for survivors of sexual assault. WHO is hosting a new sexual violence research initiative that will promote research on sexual violence as well as build an international network of researchers, policy makers, activists and donors so as to ensure that the many aspects of sexual violence are addressed. WHO is collaborating with the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to update the WHO/UNHCR document on the "Clinical management of survivors of rape" (WHO/RHR/02.08) (Geneva, 2002) for use in situations involving refugee and internally displaced people. WHO is also working with the Joint United Nations Programme on Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (UNAIDS) on a project to increase the provision of sexual and reproductive health care in crisis settings.

V. In-depth study of the Secretary-General on all forms of violence against women

60. Following the adoption of General Assembly resolution 58/185 in which the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit a report, with the study as an annex, to the Assembly at its sixtieth session, the Secretariat initiated action towards its preparation at several levels. As the resolution had called for the conduct of the study from within existing available resources and, if necessary, supplemented by voluntary contributions, a determination was made that such voluntary contributions would be necessary to ensure that the study comprehensively covered all

components spelled out in the resolution. A funding proposal concerning the process for the preparation of the study was prepared, outlining the framework for the study and areas to be covered, and its scope and methodology, as well as collaborative arrangements with all relevant stakeholders. The proposal also suggested a schedule for the convening of a limited number of expert meetings and the preparation and compilation of other substantive inputs. It recommended that a project officer, to be located in the Division for the Advancement of Women, be responsible for supporting the preparatory process, including technical organization of the expert meetings and maintaining coordination and regular information exchange with contributing United Nations entities and other stakeholders. Two Governments, namely, the Government of the Netherlands and the Government of France, informed the Secretariat in June 2004 and July 2004, respectively, of the contributions they ld be making towards the overall amount of voluntary contributions sough udy.

61. The members of the Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality of the United Nations system were briefed about the mandate in a communication of 7 January 2004 that drew attention to the content of the study, and sought their full cooperation. Members were advised that preparation of the study, which would be led by the Division for the Advancement of Women of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the Secretariat, would proceed in close cooperation with all relevant United Nations bodies as well as the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences. The extensive data, information and experience on the issue of violence against women that existed within the United Nations system would be fully drawn upon. Information would also be solicited from Member States and other stakeholders, as called for in General Assembly resolution 58/185. The study was also discussed during the annual meeting of the Inter-Agency Network in February 2004, and a number of entities expressed their interest and their readiness to contribute to the study.

62. The Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, has been briefed on the study, and her cooperation and contribution have been sought. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women at its thirty-first session was also informed about the study.

63. Efforts are now under way to identify the project officer so that preparations for expert meetings, and coordination of inputs from relevant entities of the United Nations system and other stakeholders can begin in the last quarter of 2004. The timetable originally envisaged for preparation of the study had to be adjusted on account of initial staff and resource constraints. It may therefore be necessary to reconsider the anticipated date for completion of the work so as to ensure that all relevant contributions can be appropriately sought and incorporated into the study.

VI. Conclusions and recommendations

64. **Member States continued to improve legislation on all aspects of violence against women. National action plans remain important tools for comprehensive action aimed at combating all forms of violence against women. Crimes against women committed in the name of honour, while rarely addressed through specific legislation, are being addressed through policy and awareness-raising measures. Support services for victims of violence have been**

expanded or created. To that end, Governments have worked with different stakeholders, and especially with non-governmental organizations and research institutions, to improve the quality of such services, and to support particularly vulnerable groups of women such as immigrant women. Such cooperative endeavours have also focused on prevention and public awareness-raising and the conduct of training and capacity-building. Furthermore, they have contributed to an expansion of the knowledge base on the causes and consequences of violence against women, and helped in determining the effectiveness and impact of preventive and remedial measures. Increasingly, perpetrators of violence against women are becoming a focus of attention. While some efforts have been made to enhance data collection regarding violence against women, this remains an area where little information has been provided and significant gaps in methodology and data collection continue to persist.

65. **Based on progress made so far, Governments should accelerate the preparation of comprehensive legislative frameworks to criminalize all forms of violence against women, put in place adequate penalties for perpetrators, and ensure that violence against women is prosecuted and punished. Crimes against women committed in the name of honour, where reported, must likewise be criminalized and speedily prosecuted. Women victims of violence, or women who are at risk of repeated acts of violence in the home, should have immediate means of redress and protection, including protection or restraining orders, access to legal aid, and shelters staffed with personnel who are sensitive to victims' needs. Priority attention must be given to ensuring that implementation of legislation and of policies and programmes is adequately funded throughout the territory of a State. Further efforts are needed to monitor and assess the effectiveness and impact of actions taken and how legislation, policies and programmes contribute to the achievement of defined objectives. Continued efforts are also needed to raise awareness about all forms of violence against women as a violation of the human rights of women and as a form of gender-based discrimination. Support should be provided for anti-violence networks and partnerships should be encouraged between governmental and non-governmental actors working for legislative and attitudinal change that no longer condones or accepts violence against women. Significant additional efforts are needed to improve data collection in all areas of violence against women.**

Notes

[1] Argentina, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Jordan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Malta, Mexico, Morocco, Norway, Paraguay, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Syrian Arab Republic and Ukraine.

[2] *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4-15 September 1995* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.96.IV.13), chap. I, resolution 1, annex II.

[3] General Assembly resolution S-23/2, annex, and resolution S-23/3, annex.

[4] Argentina, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bangladesh, Colombia, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Jordan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Malta, Mexico, Morocco, Myanmar, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia, Sweden, Syrian Arab Republic and United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

[5] See *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, 2003, Supplement No. 7* (E/2003/27), annex II; for a summary submitted by the moderator of the panel discussion on the topic.

[6] Ibid., *2004, Supplement No. 7* (E/2004/27), chap. I, sect. C, resolution 48/3.

[7] Ibid., *2003, Supplement No. 3* (E/2003/23), chap. II, sect. A; and ibid., *2004, Supplement No. 3* (E/2004/23), chap. II, sect. A.

[8] The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, adopted by the General Assembly in its resolution 45/158 of 18 December 1990, entered into force on 1 July 2003; and the Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families held its first session from 1 to 5 March 2004.

[9] See *Official Records of the General Assembly, Forty-seventh session, Supplement No. 38* (A/47/38), chap. I.

[10] Ibid., *Fifty-eighth session, Supplement No. 38* (A/58/38); and ibid., *Fifty-ninth session, Supplement No. 38* (A/59/38).

United Nations A/59/282

General Assembly

Distr.: General
27 August 2004

Original: English

Fifty-ninth session
Item 56 of the provisional agenda*
Follow-up to the outcome of the Millennium Summit

Implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration

Report of the Secretary-General

Contents

		Paragraphs	*Page*
I.	Introduction	1–16	2
II.	Peace and security	17–38	4
III.	Development	39–77	10
IV.	Protecting the vulnerable	78–98	19
V.	Conclusion	99–108	23
Statistical annex			
	Millennium Development Goals, targets and indicators, 2004		26

* A/59/150.

04-46540 (E) 030904

I. Introduction

1. The United Nations Millennium Declaration,[1] adopted by the world's leaders at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations in 2000, captured the aspirations of the international community for the new century. It spoke of a world united by common values and striving with renewed determination to achieve peace and decent standards of living for every man, woman and child.

2. I said in my report last year (A/58/323) that our sense of common purpose had been shaken by the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 and their aftermath. In particular, the war in Iraq profoundly divided the international community and brought to light fundamental differences among members of the United Nations on how to ensure our collective security in the face of increased threats of terrorism and weapons of mass destruction. These preoccupations greatly overshadowed other issues — from HIV/AIDS to extreme poverty and environmental degradation — despite the impact that such issues have on the lives of hundreds of millions of people every day.

3. In the last 12 months, we have made some progress in resolving our differences. It is essential that we continue on this path, for only a united international community can act effectively to confront the numerous obstacles which stand in the way of realizing the vision of the Millennium Declaration. A number of developments since my last report illustrate the magnitude of the tasks before us.

4. The situation in Iraq remains a major challenge for both the Iraqi people and the international community as a whole. The end of occupation and the formal restoration of Iraqi sovereignty on 28 June 2004 marked a new phase in Iraq's transitional process. The Interim Iraqi Government now has an opportunity to reach out to all Iraqis in an effort to bring the country together in a spirit of national unity and reconciliation in order to lay down the foundations for the new Iraq. But there are many competing visions among Iraqis, and the persisting climate of violence and insecurity threatens to undermine the establishment of democratic institutions through elections and the adoption of a new constitution.

5. One of the most distressing features of the last 12 months is the very large number of civilians who have fallen victim to terrorist acts not only within Iraq itself but also in many other countries. Major attacks targeting civilians in Istanbul, Madrid, Riyadh and Haifa and Moscow are grim reminders of the scope and severity of the challenge we face.

6. Also, in the last year, we have seen the spectre of gross and systematic violations of international humanitarian law rear its ugly head once again in the Darfur region of the Sudan. Massive human rights violations, including forced displacement, extrajudicial killings and gender-based sexual violence, combined with malnutrition and preventable disease due to a lack of access to food, water and basic sanitation, have led to the death of tens of thousands of people and the displacement of well over a million others, not only internally but also in neighbouring countries. We must not wait for confirmation of our worst fears to put the full force of the international community behind an immediate and definitive end to the atrocities. If we fail to act here, we lose not only lives but also all credibility. The situation in Darfur strikes at the very heart of the ideals of the Charter of the United Nations and the Millennium Declaration.

7. The record of the last 12 months for the world's poorest is hardly more encouraging. To cite only one measure, the number of new HIV/AIDS infections was higher in the last calendar year than ever before, raising serious concerns about the development prospects for whole regions of the world in which hundreds of millions of people reside. The growth rate of new HIV infection, which has long been a threat to the development prospects of Africa, has reached alarming levels in parts of Asia and Eastern Europe over the past year. Regional and global economic growth and social development could be hampered if this disturbing trend is not effectively countered. Indeed, in some parts of the world, the achievement of all the other Millennium Development Goals hinges on much more vigorous action to keep the epidemic in check and provide treatment for those already infected.

8. The impediments to achieving the goals of the Millennium Declaration come in many forms but they are not insuperable. In sections II to IV below, I review the results achieved in the implementation of the Declaration in certain areas: peacekeeping and curbing transnational crime (sect. II); the Millennium Development Goals (sect. III); and the protection of the vulnerable (sect. IV). This and previous reports make it clear that progress is possible and that the steps that need to be taken are well defined.

9. We have the knowledge and the technological instruments that are necessary to achieve real progress in combating poverty and to share more equitably the benefits of globalization. The conclusions of the World Commission on the Social Dimensions of Globalization issued in February 2004 offered fresh ideas to consider.[2] They complement the strategies elaborated by the major United Nations conferences of the last decade on the full range of developmental and social issues before us.

10. Similarly, there are many avenues open to us for strengthening collective security and dealing more effectively with the variety of threats that confront us. The High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, which I appointed in November 2003, will report its findings and recommendations to me in December 2004. I am confident that its report will help us find a consensus on the way forward if there is a will to act.

11. Knowledge, capacity and the political will to act and provide sufficient resources are three necessary components of a successful drive to implement the Millennium Declaration. I would also mention another, equally necessary element: respect for the rule of law.

12. More than ever before, the global community needs an effective framework of norms to govern the behaviour of States, which continue to be the principal actors in international relations. The norms of international law that have been developed to date are a precious legacy from the past and a bedrock of international cooperation in the present. The most fundamental among them, such as the Charter of the United Nations, were solemnly agreed to after tragedies which should not be allowed to happen again.

13. This is why the international community must be conscious of the need to respect and uphold the international rule of law — in all spheres — ranging from maintaining international peace and security to managing international trade and protecting human rights.

14. New challenges to security often bring pressures to bear on established legal norms. In such times, the effort to uphold the rule of law is more necessary than ever. Counter-terrorism must be pursued in a manner that strengthens, not weakens, this effort. Any sacrifice of human rights in the struggle against terrorism demeans us all and also diminishes the prospects for successfully combating the scourge of terrorism. The laws of war must be observed. States have a duty to respect and ensure respect for humanitarian law in the new and complex circumstances of contemporary armed conflict. The creation of new laws, where necessary, must be undertaken in accordance with the norms governing the process of law-making.

15. One year from now, the nations of the world will reconvene to review their progress in achieving the goals set out in 2000. The results before them will undoubtedly be mixed. There will have been some notable advances and cause for hope in some areas but also stagnation or even regression in some others. The 2005 high-level event must be more than a simple stock-taking exercise. The occasion must be used to inject new energy into the pursuit of this great Millennium enterprise. I sincerely hope that this opportunity will not be lost to strengthen the United Nations itself, because the Organization is an instrument which must evolve and adjust to the needs of the time.

16. Our success in achieving the vision of the Millennium Declaration is not measured entirely by the quantifiable progress toward each of the Declaration's goals achieved in any given year. It is also measured by how we respond to crises and challenges when they arise. If we allow these setbacks to define our efforts, we will surely fail the people of the world. If, on the other hand, we use such occasions to mobilize our spirit and our resources, we will be more than equal to the challenge.

II. Peace and security

17. The heads of State and Government pledged at the Millennium Summit to "spare no effort to free our peoples from the scourge of war, whether within or between States, which has claimed more than five million lives in the past decade".[3] To carry out that pledge, they resolved to give the United Nations the resources and tools it needs to maintain peace and security more effectively. United Nations peace operations are an important instrument in international efforts in this direction. They help to stabilize States emerging from armed conflict and to create the conditions for sustainable peace and development.

18. Since my last report, United Nations peace operations have achieved significant successes. In the face of substantial obstacles and despite setbacks, the missions in Afghanistan, Ethiopia and Eritrea, Georgia and Kosovo made progress in facilitating complex and fragile peace processes. The missions in Sierra Leone and Timor-Leste have been downsizing according to plan. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the United Nations mission was expanded and its mandate strengthened, and despite challenges to the authority of the Transitional Government, the peace process remained on track and tentative progress was made towards stability. In the second half of 2003, new missions were launched in Liberia and Côte d'Ivoire.

19. This increase in activity proved to be a prelude to a surge in demand for United Nations peacekeeping in 2004. At the start of the year, the United Nations was managing 13 peacekeeping operations and 15 special political missions. In the six months that followed, the Organization was called upon to expand its peacekeeping operation in Côte d'Ivoire and to deploy new missions simultaneously in Haiti and Burundi. At the request of the Security Council or in anticipation of upcoming operational demands, it has also been planning for substantial new or expanded operations in Iraq and the Sudan.

20. This jump in the demand for United Nations peace operations is a welcome signal of new opportunities for the international community to help bring conflicts to a peaceful solution. However, those opportunities can only be truly seized if the necessary commitments of political, financial and human resources are made and if each peace process is seen through to completion. Success depends not only on the implementation of the mandates of peace operations but also on steady, longer-term assistance to ensure that gains made during an operation are sustained. This requires working with local representative institutions to promote good governance, consolidate the rule of law, reform state security structures and support sustainable economic development. As the recent example of peacekeepers returning to Haiti reminds us, the United Nations must stay the course if the fragile peace that accompanies the outset of a peace operation is to be consolidated and made irreversible.

21. Planning estimates for new or potential operations indicate that the heightened demand will stretch, to the limit and beyond, the capacity of the United Nations to respond. The magnitude of the task can be readily seen by a simple comparison. In early 2004, United Nations peacekeeping operations included some 45,000 troops, 4,500 civilian police, 2,000 military observers and about 8,500 international and local civilian staff. Yet the five above-mentioned new or potential missions were projected to add to peacekeeping operations some 27,000 troops, 2,500 civilian police, 1,300 military observers and 6,000 international and local civilian staff, at an additional cost of up to $2 billion to the peacekeeping budget for 2004-2005.

22. The implementation of the recommendations of the Panel on United Nations Peace Operations, better known as the Brahimi Panel, resulted in the restructuring of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations and a 50-per-cent increase in its headquarters staffing capacity. In addition, strategic deployment stocks in the United Nations Logistics Base (Brindisi) were introduced, enabling the rapid deployment of the equipment needed for the start-up of one complex mission. Financial measures were also introduced to enable advance planning and recruitment to meet the 30/90-day deployment targets established as a result of the Brahimi Panel review. As a result, the Department of Peacekeeping Operations is providing stronger support to field missions, as reflected in feedback from those missions.

23. However, the surge in requirements described above goes beyond the needs envisaged when the reforms were set in motion and therefore goes beyond the capacities that have been built. The Department has taken temporary measures to address the challenges posed by the sharp increase in peacekeeping. However, a number of critical gaps remain and further reforms are required. I will be presenting recommendations to the General Assembly on the new steps that need to be taken. While the necessary large-scale troop contributions may be within reach, the same cannot be said for vitally important specialized military capabilities, such as rapid-

response capacities, tactical air support, field medical facilities and movement control. The need for francophone police has also grown beyond the ready supply. And in terms of materiel, the strategic reserve stocks of the Organization will be depleted long before all the new missions are deployed. They must be rapidly replenished and every effort must be made to fill the remaining gaps.

24. Meeting the new challenges facing United Nations peacekeeping also calls for careful political management and the coordination of a number of different mandate elements since each of the new or planned operations is complex and multidimensional. The operational departments and the funds, programmes and agencies of the United Nations must be able to contribute with maximum efficiency and their support must be well coordinated. With those objectives in mind, the Department, the Executive Committee on Humanitarian Affairs and the United Nations Development Group (UNDG) are jointly reviewing and improving the capacity of the United Nations to conduct integrated operations. One thing that is clear is that the successful implementation of complex mandates requires civilian personnel of the highest calibre, who will need to be drawn from across the United Nations system, as well as from other multilateral organizations and Member States where certain technical expertise is more readily available.

25. As the peacekeeping burden has increased, the strategic partnerships of the United Nations with the African Union, the European Union, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and other multilateral organizations have become more important — and I am pleased to report that solid progress has been made in strengthening those partnerships. Following the case of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which was reported last year, effective operational handover between the United Nations and the European Union also occurred in Ituri, Democratic Republic of the Congo; in addition, the European Union/United Nations Joint Declaration on Crisis Management of 24 September 2003 underpins several years of sustained and growing engagement and cooperation. United Nations and African Union relations have been strengthened through headquarters-to-headquarters institution-building activities, as well as through the recent successful peacekeeping handover in Burundi. NATO and United Nations personnel continue to work alongside one another in complex peace efforts in Kosovo and Afghanistan. A solid basis therefore exists for making those partnerships even more active and operational.

26. The increased demand for United Nations peace operations that has arisen this year represents a challenge not seen since the rapid increases in the scale and complexity of such operations in the 1990s. Many lessons were learned from both the successes and failures of that era — lessons that we must draw on to meet the needs of today. The reforms and improvements in the system made over the last four years are a testament to the commitment of the international community to work effectively through the United Nations to meet the challenges in this area of international peace and security. But the process of strengthening United Nations peacekeeping is an ongoing one. The scale of current demands means that even greater commitment is required from all the partners in the system — Member States, United Nations entities and regional organizations. Both developing and developed countries must strengthen support for peacekeeping, reaffirming to local parties that the presence of the United Nations signifies the concerted will and determination of the entire international community. The costs of United Nations peace operations are minuscule compared to the costs of conflict — not only in

terms of funds but also in terms of human misery and suffering — and the world looks to the world body for effective interventions in this field.

Curbing transnational crime

27. The Millennium Declaration emphasizes the right to live in dignity, free from violence, fear and oppression. Yet, across the globe, the remarkable growth of transnational forms of criminal activity in the years since the end of the cold war are having a significant impact on peace and development, on prospects for economic growth, and on human rights, democracy and good governance. The nature of the criminal organizations involved in such illegal activities, with the associated problems of corruption and linkages to terrorism, is evolving rapidly, and they constitute one of the key security challenges facing the global community.

28. Organized criminal groups today resemble complex networks of business conglomerates that are able to blend illegality with legitimate business. Gone, for the most part, are the hierarchical structures — the families, the cartels, the cupolas. Such groups have fragmented, to be replaced by an explosion of complex networks of criminal organizations. Their tentacles have extended into many countries, and Governments have different capacities and/or levels of political commitment to combat the problem. The available evidence shows that crime groups are becoming more pervasive and dynamic in organization and have broadened the scope of their operations, geographically and by sector: they are not simply transnational and specialized but transcontinental and diversified. Importantly too, the sophistication of the banking sector, combined with the global reach of the Internet, have dramatically reduced the importance of physical boundaries. Those trends will continue in conjunction with globalization.

29. Just like legitimate business, organized crime today pursues multiple activities. While drug trafficking remains a key specialization, criminal organizations also engage in trafficking of whatever is available for profit — from nuclear waste and firearms to protected species, cultural artefacts and, most tragically, human beings. Cyber-links enable sophisticated fraud scams by facilitating rapid economic and financial transactions that are not constrained by time and distance. Despite this diversification of activities and the facilitating role played by new technologies, one feature of organized criminal activity has remained the same — its propensity for violence. Transnational crime groups engage in extensive violence to bend victims' resolve: not only are threats and intimidation targeted at public officials and common citizens to gain acquiescence, but hundreds and thousands of women are trafficked for sexual exploitation, hundreds of thousands of children are brutalized and millions of people of all ages are forced to labour for little or no pay. On all continents, human resources are sold and bought by criminal organizations for quick return. The victims are highly vulnerable to injury and disease, including HIV/AIDS.

30. Ongoing conflicts, as well as civil and political strife, are closely linked to the growth of criminal networks. Conflicts and instability in the Andean region, in West, Central and Southern Africa, in Central Asia and in Southeastern Europe have all been intimately associated with the growth of powerful criminal organizations. War generates instability, in which organized crime thrives, and it provides an opportunity for illicit enrichment through the creation of profitable new markets for smuggled goods, ranging from natural resources to weapons. In its most extreme

form, organized crime can actually cause humanitarian crises, and conflicts can be rendered more difficult to settle because of greed and the illegal exploitation of assets in war-torn lands. In most post-conflict situations, the growth of organized crime constitutes a challenge to the development of reformed institutions, such as the police, customs and the judiciary. From Afghanistan to Iraq, from the Caucasus to the Balkans and in both West and East Africa, the evolution of criminal organizations is an obstacle to achieving stable, more prosperous societies.

31. Criminal organizations are not purely creatures of the underworld. Their "business", bloody as it may be, overlaps with legitimate commerce. The vehicles, such as containers, that are used for illicit trafficking are the same as those used for legitimate business; illicit drugs and other contraband are often transported not by unregistered ships or unmarked aeroplanes arriving at isolated airports but commercial shipping, postal systems and couriers — the transport and communication network lying at the very heart of global trade. The profits from illegal activities are almost always invested in the legal economy. In this way, organized crime distorts markets. Legal practices are undermined by unrelated risks, and investments and business decisions are distorted. Criminal organizations often operate through "front companies", blurring the distinction between licit and illicit business. Such companies especially harm new business by undercutting prices. They can do so by making their profits from illegal activities, effectively eliminating honest competitors.

32. In developing economies, the illegal activities of organized criminal groups impact most negatively upon the poor, who have few savings or resources to absorb the costs. The shadow economy fed by illicit profits means that there is a smaller revenue base for education, health care, pensions and other necessities. But criminal organizations also have a profound effect on communities by fostering local criminal economies that subvert the established systems of local governance. In many urban areas, many people live in constant fear for their lives as a result of drug-related violence, with communities being regulated not through consensus but by threats and intimidation. Organized crime has a heavy impact on the control and management of urban settlements, where, taking advantage of weak local government structures and governance mechanisms, it adversely affects public investments, resource management and the daily lives of city dwellers.

33. Then there is the less tangible aspect of the problem: the penetration of national Governments, economic sectors, even people's hearts and minds. Almost everywhere they exist, organized crime and high-level corruption are linked, one depending on the other in the conduct of business and in the search for a cover for illicit activities. Corruption often reaches into Governments and parliaments, undermining the State and its institutions. Not only do crime groups engage in bribery to ensure the movement of contraband (whether drugs, weapons or any other illegal commodity) across borders; but they also engage in extensive political corruption. As a result, criminal groups gain political influence and render the administration of law less equal and fair. With the risk of effective government responses weakened, the reward of corruption becomes even more attractive. Fighting corruption is therefore integral to fighting organized crime.

34. As recognized by the Security Council in its resolution 1373 (2001) of 28 September 2001, the links between criminal activities and terrorism must also be taken into account. Similarly, in its resolution 1456 (2003) of 20 January 2003, the

Council emphasized the need to prevent terrorists from making use of transnational organized crime, illicit drugs and drug trafficking, money-laundering and illicit arms trafficking. In its most extreme form, the activities of some criminal and terrorist groups are indistinguishable. Terrorist groups may smuggle drugs or people for profit, while criminal groups may terrorize for political ends. In some cases, the conduct of illegal economic activity by terrorist groups subverts their ideological aims as members' key activities centre on the acquisition of illegal resources and ideology is subordinated to profit. More commonly, however, criminal groups render services to terrorists by providing false documentation or weaponry for payment. Whatever the nature of the links in any particular case, given that both organized crime and terror adopt the same methods — cell-like structures, secret communications, the movement of financial resources, codes of silence and the use of violence to control and intimidate — similar responses are required. Building law-enforcement capacity to counter organized crime and corrupt practices, therefore, also reinforces the ability to counter terrorism effectively.

35. The increasingly global nature of organized crime requires a global response, relying first and foremost on more effective international cooperation. The trafficking operations of criminal groups, by definition, cross borders — indeed, they use the constraints posed by borders on law enforcement agencies as a comparative advantage. Accordingly, the fight against those phenomena must be a cross-national, regional and global enterprise. The key instrument to counter such anti-social behaviours is the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime,[4] which came into force in September 2003 and has now been ratified by 82 States. The Conference of Parties to the Convention met for the first time in July 2004 in Vienna, agreeing on a work plan for its implementation. Its three supplementary instruments are also significant, targeting the specific manifestations of organized crime: the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children,[5] the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air,[6] and the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, Their Parts and Components and Ammunition[7] (which has yet to enter into force). The Convention puts in place processes and structures to initiate and sustain cooperation. I urge countries which have not done so to ratify this important instrument and its three Protocols, and by so doing to support the process for their effective implementation. The success of the Convention, as well as other related efforts at police and criminal justice reform, will depend on the provision of technical assistance to those most affected, and will also require a commitment from all States to effective implementation based on a commitment to the rule of law and the protection of human rights.

36. Similarly, the adoption and opening for signature at Mérida, Mexico, in December 2003, of the United Nations Convention against Corruption[8] is a significant achievement. The support that it has received, measured by the number of countries that have signed, indicates both an acute awareness of the severity of the problem and a remarkable commitment to tackling it. I call on States that have not yet done so to sign and ratify this important instrument. A key focus of the Convention is prevention — providing the institutional and regulatory framework to reduce the likelihood of corrupt practices in the first instance. Ensuring that this preventive framework is in place in societies severely affected by corruption must be an immediate priority. Without it, random prosecutions or media investigations cannot on their own prevent corrupt practices. The first step, as recognized by the

Convention, must be built on systems, structures and procedures that are aimed at prevention. This requires inputs and actions from many agencies and across multiple sectors.

37. These universal legal instruments provide a legal framework, a stimulus for action and a systematic way of organizing such action to contain and counter key challenges to global security. By definition, programmes that aim to eradicate social evils are multisectoral: given the breadth and depth of the challenges, there is work for a multitude of agencies and organizations both inside and outside the United Nations system, building on their comparative advantage and institutional expertise. With that in mind and with the aim of building a more comprehensive response to organized crime and corruption across the United Nations system, in April 2004 the United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination endorsed a series of immediate and medium-term measures designed to ensure more effective action against organized crime in a variety of sectors where United Nations agencies are active. Our aim is to work together more closely to enhance our impact, ensuring a more effective response to the evolving threat posed by transnational crime and its links to corruption and terrorism (for more details, see E/2004/67).

38. We ignore the threat posed by transnational organized crime at our peril. In an interdependent world, the damage to one's neighbour will also eventually be damage to oneself. Transnational crime and its impact respect no borders, bypass no community and leave the life of no single citizen untouched. I urge all Governments, as well as the institutions of civil society more broadly, to support the efforts of the United Nations in responding effectively to this challenge.

III. Development

Making the Millennium Development Goals happen

39. In four short years, the eight Millennium Development Goals derived from the Millennium Declaration have transformed the face of global development cooperation. The broad global consensus around a set of clear, measurable and time-bound development goals has generated unprecedented, coordinated action, not only within the United Nations system, including the Bretton Woods institutions, but also within the wider donor community and, most importantly, within developing countries themselves.

40. The commitment of Governments, individually and collectively, to the Millennium Development Goals, and their integration into national and international development strategies, policies and actions is expected to produce improved development results. For most goals, however, data on achievements are not available beyond 2002. In addition, most projections of the possible outcomes in 2015 start from the base year of 1990 and are thus weighted heavily by the results achieved before the Millennium Development Goals were even adopted and corresponding policies introduced, which suggests that relying on such historical data to anticipate future outcomes, including the situation in 2015, may provide an unduly pessimistic view.

41. That caveat aside, the data available so far suggest that the developing countries fall into three broad groups in terms of their progress towards the Millennium Development Goals. The first is a group of countries, comprising most

of Asia and Northern Africa, that is largely on track to meet the target of halving extreme poverty by 2015 and to achieve many of the social targets of the Goals. The second group of countries, mainly in West Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean, has been making good progress towards some individual goals, such as achieving universal primary education, but has been less successful in reducing poverty. The third group, largely comprising countries in sub-Saharan Africa but also least developed countries in other regions, are far from making adequate progress on most of the goals.

42. As the United Nations prepares for the five-year review of the Millennium Declaration, a major breakthrough is needed if the 2015 targets are to be met. Developing countries must fulfil their commitments, as set out in the Millennium Declaration and the Monterrey Consensus of the International Conference on Financing for Development,[9] to reallocate and mobilize more domestic resources, reform institutions to suit national priorities, and adopt effective, nationally owned economic and social policies that can provide a spur to economic growth. It is particularly important to follow up the broader commitments to democracy, human rights and sound, accountable governance.

43. While these actions are all necessary to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, they are far from sufficient. Developed countries must also fulfil their responsibilities by increasing and improving development assistance, concluding a new development-oriented trade round, embracing wider and deeper debt relief and fostering technology transfer. Indeed, if the vision behind the Millennium Declaration is to be realized, the Goals must be seen as a global deal that is built on mutual commitments and mutual accountability.

Reshaping development strategies

Developing countries

44. Within developing countries, there is a growing momentum around the Millennium Development Goals. At the regional level, intergovernmental groups, such as the African Union, have endorsed the goals, and five regional Millennium Development Goals reports, most recently for the Arab States and Central Europe, have been prepared. In addition, the preparation of Millennium Development Goals country reports has accelerated, with 82 prepared to date and 73 countries having completed at least one report. The improvement in the procedural, qualitative and quantitative aspects of the reports has been as important as the increase in the overall number. Although at first the reports tended to be prepared by small groups of drafters, more recently the process has come to include both Governments, which are engaging in national debates and tailoring targets to national priorities and circumstances, and national statistical offices, which have become more involved in the collection and analysis of specific indicators. The result is a stronger sense of national ownership and purpose. In most cases, the global Millennium Development Goals and indicators have been adjusted to countries' individual development conditions, and in some instances countries have gone so far as to adopt targets that are more ambitious than the Goals.

45. This work is having a real impact at the country level, where many Governments are starting to develop national strategies that trigger real policy changes focused on the Millennium Development Goals. In the United Republic of

Tanzania, the Government has used a United Nations-supported Millennium Development Goals monitoring system to sharpen its poverty reduction strategy to emphasize rural development and food security, leading directly to a doubling of this year's national budget for agriculture . In Albania, the Government is producing Millennium Development Goals reports that establish a baseline within each region to serve as the foundation for future development strategies. Thailand and Viet Nam have set Millennium Development Goals-plus targets that go beyond the global targets. Cambodia, Mozambique and Yemen have adapted the Goals to meet national priorities and conditions. Brazil has incorporated most Millennium Development Goals targets into its planning framework, and has set specific targets for regions and social groups. Egypt has made progress in implementing the Goals in local areas. The Solomon Islands and Afghanistan, which are both recovering from conflict, are framing their national development strategies around the Goals.

Donor countries

46. For their part, donor countries have increasingly recognized the value and necessity of reporting on goal 8 of the Millennium Development Goals (Develop a global partnership for development) as a way of verifying their own credibility in supporting the Goals and underscoring the importance of reciprocity between donor and recipient countries. Denmark was the first to publish its report, in 2003, followed by the Netherlands in May 2004 and Sweden in June 2004. Other donors, including Belgium, Canada, Finland, Norway and the United Kingdom, have indicated that they intend to publish their reports shortly. In another encouraging initiative, the European Union (EU) has decided to prepare a consolidated report related to goals 7 (covering environmental sustainability) and 8 (covering development assistance, dismantling trade barriers and debt relief) for the international Millennium Development Goals "stock-taking" event in 2005. Moves to undertake the reporting process collectively through the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC), whereby member countries could share experiences and lessons learned and adopt a common reporting format and a greater focus on the Goals, would be welcome. Although all official development assistance (ODA) addresses poverty reduction either directly or indirectly, approximately 43 per cent, or just under $24 billion, of the more than $55 billion total annual ODA flows in 2001/02 also addressed the Goals specifically. For example, of that total more than $1 billion was allotted to primary education, more than $1.2 billion to HIV/AIDS, about $2.1 billion to environmental sustainability programmes and nearly $5.1 billion to debt relief.

United Nations system

47. The Millennium Development Goals have also reshaped the way the United Nations addresses development issues by improving coherence and coordination at the country level. UNDG, in particular, has reoriented its work around the Goals, developing new guidelines for the United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks. The Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat contributes to national statistical capacity-building and the collection of sound, reliable and comparable data, which are indispensable for the formulation and implementation of policies to achieve the Goals. More broadly, the Goals have helped to galvanize the follow-up to the outcomes of major United Nations conferences and summits; including the Beijing Declaration and Platform for

Action,[10] the Plan of Implementation of the World Summit on Sustainable Development,[11] the Brussels Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010,[12] the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS,[13] and the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States.[14]

48. Similarly, many United Nations entities are using the Millennium Development Goals framework for monitoring their own activities, such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Education for All programme; World Health Organization (WHO)/United Nations Children's Fund monitoring of child and maternal health; and the measurement of results for food security, hunger, nutrition and eradication of rural poverty by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and the World Food Programme (WFP). Agencies and programmes are also using the Goals as a point of reference for overall reporting and analytical work, as can be seen, for example, in the World Health Organization annual *World Health Report* and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) *Human Development Report*.

49. Similarly, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund are using the Millennium Development Goals as a framework for their work, and in coordination with UNDG have adopted a shared approach to country-level assessments of the actions required to achieve the Goals within the context of poverty reduction strategy papers and national development strategies. Much of that work is centred on the Millennium Project, which draws together networks of hundreds of policy makers, practitioners and experts in 10 task forces to map out new strategies to meet the Goals. The Project is providing research and analysis to identify the institutional reforms, investments and other interventions needed to "scale up" efforts to meet the Goals. Among its core tasks is to work with a selected number of United Nations country teams, the World Bank and other partners in helping Governments to align the poverty reduction strategy papers (or equivalent policy vehicles) with a long-term, needs-based strategy for achieving the Goals in the context of the 10-year planning horizons required for the 2015 deadline. The Project's final report will be presented to the Secretary-General in early 2005.

50. Complementing that effort in research and policy analysis, the Millennium Campaign is mobilizing political support for the Millennium Declaration by working with parliamentary networks, local authorities, media, faith-based organizations, youth organizations, civil society and other movements extending well beyond the United Nations system. During 2003 and early 2004, a number of subregional and national consultations with civil society and other partners in developing countries were convened in Latin America, Africa, Asia and Arab countries aimed at putting together broad-based coalitions to promote the Millennium Development Goals. There is also growing support for the Goals in developed countries, especially in Europe, with a broad, civil society-led coalition being set up to focus on the forthcoming five-year review of the Millennium Declaration under the broad banner "Make poverty history". In all cases, the campaigns are managed and driven by national and regional actors, and the Millennium Campaign is playing a facilitating, convening and information-sharing role.

Moving towards the Millennium Development Goals

51. Despite greater endorsement of the Millennium Development Goals and some encouraging regional and subregional trends, as a whole the world is not optimizing its performance. Some regions and countries are making little progress towards any of the Goals. Many sub-Saharan African countries will need special support to accelerate progress sufficiently to catch up. Indeed, many of those countries are caught in a poverty trap, in which a limited availability of domestic resources, accentuated by high population growth, restricts the public and private investment and public expenditure on both social services and development administration needed to escape from the trap.

Goal 1
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

52. With regard to goal 1, progress remains uneven and in many countries there has been a deterioration. Although much of Eastern, South-Eastern and Southern Asia and North Africa are broadly on track, there has been little or no progress in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean, and in Western Asia poverty has increased. As of 2001, almost half the population of sub-Saharan Africa was struggling to survive on $1 per day or less, the same proportion as in 1990. The poverty gap ratio for that region is almost three times that in Southern Asia, the next most impoverished region.

53. The proportion of the population in developing countries who suffer from hunger fell in Eastern and South-Eastern Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean in the 1990s. It also fell in Southern Asia, but the rate of improvement was insufficient to ensure that the target will be met. In Africa, food production has barely kept up with population growth since 1980, owing to the depletion of soil nutrients, the declining availability of arable land per person and high population growth. In Western Asia, the rate of hunger increased.

Goal 2
Achieve universal primary education

54. Under goal 2, all developing country regions experienced an increase in their primary net enrolment ratios from 1990/91 to 2001/02, but sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Oceania are still short of meeting the goal. Moreover, 121 million children are still out of school, 65 million of them girls and a disproportionate number of them in Africa, Southern Asia and the least developed countries. Success is possible — net primary school enrolment rates increased substantially from 1990 to 2000 in Benin, Eritrea, the Gambia, Malawi, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal and Togo — but a substantial additional effort is required.

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

55. With regard to goal 3, the target of achieving parity between girls and boys in primary and secondary education by 2005 is being met or nearly so in most regions except sub-Saharan Africa and Southern and Western Asia (which could catch up by 2010). Girls' enrolments have increased faster than boys' in all regions, and the ratio of girls to boys in primary school rose impressively from 1990 to 2000 in such countries as Bangladesh, Gambia, Mauritania, Nepal and the Sudan. Nevertheless,

fewer than 80 girls per 100 boys are enrolled at the secondary level in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia overall.

56. Progress as measured by other indicators under goal 3 is lagging behind. Wage-employment rates of women have changed little in any region since 1990, and are far below those for men in all regions except Latin America and the Caribbean, where 43 per cent of wage workers are now women, and Eastern Asia, where the proportion is 40 per cent. Women continue to be vastly underrepresented in national parliaments in most regions. Only in the Nordic countries do women hold 40 per cent of the seats; in 14 countries they hold 30 per cent or more of the seats; in Northern Africa, Southern and Western Asia and Oceania, they hold less than 10 per cent.

Goal 4
Reduce child mortality

57. Progress on goal 4 is on track or nearly so in Northern Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean and South-Eastern Asia but has been weaker in Southern Asia and negligible in Western Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania. Sub-Saharan Africa continues to have the highest level of under-five mortality, estimated at 174 under-five deaths per 1,000 live births, nearly twice the rate of the next highest region, Southern Asia, and more than 20 times the rate in developed regions.

Goal 5
Improve maternal health

58. Under goal 5, the uncertainty of maternal mortality estimates does not allow any definite assessment of trends. Recent estimates continue to indicate appallingly high rates of maternal deaths in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia: of an estimated 529,000 maternal deaths worldwide in 2000, 445,000 occurred in those two regions. The maternal mortality rate was highest in sub-Saharan Africa, at 920 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births, followed by South Asia, with 520 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births. Recent data on the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, a critical factor in reducing maternal deaths, indicate significant improvements in northern Africa and Eastern and South-Eastern Asia; the lowest rates are found in South-Central Asia — only 35 attendants per 100 deliveries.

Goal 6
Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

59. Goal 6, stopping the spread of HIV/AIDS and other major diseases, especially malaria and tuberculosis, has received greater political and financial support from donors but annual funding remains significantly short of the estimated $12 billion needed in 2005 and the $20 billion needed for 2006. A total of $4.7 billion was spent in 2003, up from $1.7 billion in 2002. Nevertheless, implementation and national commitment remain inadequate and the world is still far short of realizing any major success. As the 2004 global report on AIDS demonstrates, there is no region where HIV is not a potential serious threat to the population, and almost no country where the spread of HIV/AIDS has been definitely stopped.

60. Trends in AIDS prevalence and deaths, available for the first time in 2004, indicate that the number of persons living with HIV/AIDS increased from 35 million in 2001 to 38 million in 2003, while an estimated 4.8 million people became newly infected in 2003, more than in any previous year. The pandemic continues unabated in the majority of countries of sub-Saharan Africa, is reaching epidemic proportions in eastern Europe and is starting to spread rapidly in the general population in Southern Asia. Successful interventions and prevention programmes continue to fall far short, and the sheer scale of the problem is having a devastating "knock-on" impact on broader health, poverty, education and hunger indicators and on the very capacity to govern.

61. The epidemic remains most severe in Africa, particularly Southern Africa, where 24-39 per cent of pregnant women aged 15-24 in capital cities were infected with the virus in 2002/03. Of the estimated 2.9 million AIDS-related deaths in 2003, 2.2 million occurred in sub-Saharan Africa, where progress has been slow. Where the necessary prevention, testing and control programmes have been adopted, such as in Uganda, progress has been made, with the prevalence of infection declining as measured in two antenatal clinics in Kampala.

62. On another key front, there is no evidence that malaria is diminishing. Once again, sub-Saharan Africa is the region most affected. Tuberculosis infection rates are also on the increase in that region, and they have only been reduced by a small margin in most other regions.

63. Outbreaks of new and re-emerging diseases are also threatening global health, with severe potential repercussions for all the Millennium Development Goals. To respond to such threats, WHO and United Nations partners are working with Governments, particularly in least developed countries, to improve the preparedness of national health systems through capacity-building, exchange of information and other measures, including building up laboratory and epidemiology capacity. At a global level, new initiatives, such as the Global Outbreak Alert and the Response Network, are bringing together more than 120 partners to provide timely and high-quality technical support. It has become clear that the WHO International Health Regulations, which serve as a global regulatory framework for addressing global health security and epidemic alert and response, need to be strengthened and adapted to the realities of the health challenges of the twenty-first century.

64. The picture regarding goal 7 is mixed. Although the data on drinking water and sanitation remain incomplete, all regions have seen some progress. Urban access to improved drinking water is nearly universal, except in sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania, where it has declined. Significant improvements have been made in rural access in all regions, but only a few countries have achieved improvement at a sufficient rate to meet the target. While there has been significant progress towards meeting the sanitation goal, 2.6 billion people worldwide did not have access to improved sanitation in 2000. Reflecting those challenges, in its resolution 58/218 the General Assembly declared 2005-2015 to be the International Decade for Action, "Water for Life", and the Secretary-General has established the Advisory Board on Water and Sanitation to help mobilize action and funds for water and sanitation, and encourage new partnerships.

Goal 7
Ensure environmental sustainability

65. Even regions that have made significant progress towards achieving many other goals, such as parts of Asia, tend to have a poorer record on environmental issues. Protected areas have increased in all regions, but there has been a loss of forest cover in some parts of the world, notably those with tropical forests. Energy use and per capita carbon dioxide emissions have increased in developing countries but fell in the economies in transition with the decline in industrial production in the 1990s. The use of ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons has been almost eliminated globally.

66. Progress in the implementation of the global conventions has been mixed. The Kyoto Protocol[15] to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change[16] has been ratified by 120 countries, but it requires ratification by either the Russian Federation or the United States in order to come into force. The United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa,[17] was adopted in 1994 and entered into force in 1996, but a lack of financial resources has limited its implementation. More encouragingly, there has been progress towards the full implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity,[18] with the adoption of measurable indicators and specific goals to reduce the current rate of biodiversity loss by 2010, and the entry into force of the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety[19] in September 2003. On the question of deforestation and forest degradation, nine international processes involving 150 countries that encompass 85 per cent of the world's forests have made progress in developing criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management. The Second World Conference on Disaster Reduction, to be held in Kobe, Japan, in January 2005, should help to intensify cooperation to reduce the number and effects of natural and man-made disasters, particularly through the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction.

Building a strong global partnership

Goal 8
Develop a global partnership for development

67. Essential to achieving the Millennium Development Goals is goal 8, the pledge by developed countries to follow through on previously stated commitments to support the good-faith efforts by developing countries to achieve the first seven goals by dismantling trade barriers, widening debt relief and expanding development assistance. There has been some progress, particularly with regard to aid flows, but the scale of support continues to fall well short of what is needed.

68. In the area of trade, the collapse of negotiations at the World Trade Organization (WTO) ministerial meeting held in Cancún, Mexico, on the Doha round of trade talks, which had for the first time explicitly placed the needs and interests of poor countries at the centre of the trade agenda, stalled progress for 10 months and was a serious setback in efforts to create a level playing field in which developing countries are able to take advantage of their comparative advantages, particularly in such areas as agriculture and textiles. With the agreement on 31 July by the 147 member Governments of WTO on a new framework, the prospects for the Doha round have significantly improved. In particular, for the first time, WTO

member Governments agreed to abolish all forms of agricultural export subsidies by a specific date and to reduce trade-distorting domestic support for agriculture. According to World Bank estimates, a rollback of developed-country trade barriers and subsidies in agriculture would improve global welfare by about $120 billion. The task now is to turn the new framework into a final agreement that delivers this great promise to the developing world.

69. Recent market access initiatives, such as the "Everything but Arms" initiative of the European Union and the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act of the United States, also represent some progress. In particular, apparel exports to the United States from certain countries in Africa have increased dramatically, but the overall impact is not yet significant across the board.

70. The long-term downward trend and volatility in non-fuel commodity prices continue to pose a major challenge to exporting countries. The international community should renew its efforts to alleviate these problems by improving existing mechanisms and considering new approaches.

71. With regard to debt relief, of the 37 least developed countries that have been classified as eligible for the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) debt relief programme, as of April 2004, 13 had reached "completion point" and 14 had reached "decision point." Partly as a result, the debt-to-gross national income (GNI) ratio for those countries fell from 109 per cent in 1997 to 86 per cent in 2002. While the debt-to-export ratio shrank across all regions of the developing world over the same period, it remains above the 150 per cent threshold condition for a country's heavily indebted poor country (HIPC) designation in Latin America, the Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa. Even for several countries that reached the completion point, debt sustainability is not guaranteed. Given evidence that countries have been using debt-relief savings to invest in Millennium Development Goals-focused areas, such as health and education, relief should be accelerated. In addition, there is a strong case for expanding HIPC eligibility to some larger and middle-income countries that are facing an acute debt crisis.

72. With regard to development assistance, the trend is positive with regards to both quality and quantity, but much more needs to be done. At one level, there has been encouraging progress in streamlining procedures and harmonizing practices across donors and institutions. The Rome Declaration on Harmonization adopted by the High-level Forum on Harmonization in February 2003 was timely in that it coincided with the shift to country ownership of development programmes. However, in following up on this new approach, donors need to adopt and execute a collective road map indicating how, by September 2005, they intend to improve coordination and reduce the transactions costs imposed on recipient countries.

73. With regard to total flows, OECD/DAC member countries increased ODA to developing countries by 3.9 per cent ($2.3 billion) in real terms from 2002 to 2003. That level is down from the 7.0 per cent real increase in ODA from 2001 to 2002, but in absolute terms DAC countries' ODA in 2003 reached $68.5 billion, a figure slightly distorted by the depreciation of the dollar but nevertheless the highest level ever in both nominal and real terms. It represents 0.25 per cent of donor countries' total gross national income, an increase from 0.23 per cent in 2002 and 0.22 per cent in 2001.

74. Much of that progress was country-specific, with the $2.3 billion increase in ODA reflecting the start of reconstruction aid flows into Iraq ($2 billion) and the continuing growth in general bilateral grants ($2 billion), all of which were offset by decreased contributions to multilateral concessional funds (-$1.2 billion) and net lending (-$0.5 billion). The United States is the largest aid donor in absolute terms, though only Denmark, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden have met the United Nations ODA target of 0.7 per cent of gross national income (GNI). Five other countries have committed themselves to meet the 0.7 per cent target: Ireland by 2007, Belgium by 2010, France and Spain by 2012 and the United Kingdom by 2013.

75. The combination of all commitments made by donors since the International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey would, if fulfilled, raise ODA by about $20 billion by 2006 compared to 2001 levels. That is encouraging but needs to be put in perspective. On the one hand, much of the increase simply represents "catch-up" after a long period of decline: per capita aid flows to most least developed countries and to Africa as a whole remain between one fifth and one third lower, respectively, than they were in the early 1990s. As the High-Level Panel on Financing for Development led by former President Zedillo of Mexico concluded in its report to the Monterrey Conference (see A/55/1000, annex), even assuming that developing countries adopted sound policies and maximized their use of domestic resources, a minimum additional $50 billion a year in aid would probably be needed in order to meet the Millennium Development Goals. While innovative ideas, such as the United Kingdom's proposed international finance facility, point to some potential solutions, for developing countries the key is not how but when. Whatever other steps they take, without assistance on a sufficient scale the goals will simply not be met.

76. With only 11 years to go until the 2015 deadline, 2005 will be a critical year, particularly for Africa. Overcoming human poverty will require a quantum leap in scale and ambition: more nationally owned strategies and policies, stronger institutions, wider participatory processes, focused investments in economic and social infrastructure, and more resources, domestic and external. Realistically, if the goals set are to be reached, these developments need to happen very soon.

77. The Millennium Development Goals are still technically feasible in even the poorest countries, but the window of opportunity is rapidly narrowing and the political will remains largely absent. The five-year review of the Millennium Declaration provides potentially the last realistic opportunity to take the necessary steps to accelerate the enormous momentum of the last few years to meet the Goals. We must seize this opportunity.

IV. Protecting the vulnerable

The Millennium Development Goals, disasters, risk reduction and complex crises: making the humanitarian linkages

78. In the Millennium Declaration, world leaders declared their commitment to ensuring "that children and all civilian populations that suffer disproportionately the consequences of natural disasters, genocide, armed conflicts and other humanitarian emergencies are given every assistance and protection so that they can resume normal life as soon as possible".[20] The pledges made in the Declaration regarding

protecting the vulnerable remain as important as ever for achieving the vision of a more peaceful, prosperous and just world that was articulated by the Millennium Summit four years ago.

Addressing vulnerabilities in emergencies

79. Interventions geared towards mitigating the adverse effects of disasters and crises are a vital part of efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. After all, it is the poor, the vulnerable and the oppressed who are most affected by environmental degradation, natural hazards or the eruption of violent conflict. They are also the most likely to suffer the consequences in the form of death and displacement and the systematic loss of development gains.

80. The terrible consequences of disasters resulting from environmental hazards continue to fall disproportionately on the shoulders of the world's poor. In 2003 alone, 600 million people were adversely affected by 700 natural occurrences, which caused economic losses exceeding US$ 65 billion. Approximately 75,000 people perished in those disasters — 30,000 of them were killed in seconds by the earthquakes in Algeria in May 2003 and in Bam, Iran, in December 2003.

81. A number of emerging trends suggest that the frequency of and vulnerability to such hazards will only get worse. The Earth's climate is very likely to change over the decades to come — the result of increases in the concentration of atmospheric greenhouse gases caused by human activity and short-sighted government policies. In addition, there are the dangers of rising sea levels, as well as increased variability in rainfall and temperature levels, resulting in floods, droughts, hurricanes and tornadoes. The likely socio-economic outcomes are not favourable and include changes in agricultural production patterns that in turn will have negative implications for livelihoods and migration trends. The ensuing competition for control of natural resources may exacerbate tensions between groups.

82. Growing vulnerability to natural hazards will also have significant implications for humanitarian and development actors. Poor countries will be least able to reduce the impact of droughts, flooding or disease; the resulting dependence on life-saving responses may divert time, energy and resources from activities that address long-term goals.

83. The events of the past 12 months serve as evidence that attention to risk-reduction and prevention strategies can curb vulnerability to natural hazards. Widespread flooding across South Asia in July 2004, although severe and deadly for many, had a less destructive impact than comparable flooding a few decades ago. The difference was the result of the increased attention that has been paid in recent years to ensuring local preparedness and building response capacities. Similarly, the focus by humanitarian and development partners and donors on addressing — and funding — the structural obstacles to food security in the Horn of Africa has averted a major famine from the drought cycle that began in 2002.

84. Such examples have raised awareness of the important place that risk reduction must hold in efforts to achieve sustainable development, giving rise to many United Nations and government initiatives to integrate disaster reduction into development planning and action. For example, an initiative of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, supported by the African Union and the New Partnership for Africa's Development, UNDP and the World Bank, resulted in the African Regional

Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction, which was endorsed by African heads of State in Addis Ababa in July 2004. The importance of developing practices to increase resilience to sudden and chronic shocks will also come into sharper focus during the second World Conference on Disaster Reduction, to be held in Kobe, Japan, in January 2005.

85. At the same time, vulnerability from conflict continues to be widespread. Violent incursions in the Darfur region of Sudan have displaced at least a million people within Sudan and neighbouring Chad. Violence in the east of the Democratic Republic of the Congo threatens the fragile gains made in the peace process. United Nations missions in Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia have helped to stabilize those countries, but continued insecurity and the cumulative effects of years of unrest have deprived the population of basic services in many areas. Humanitarian emergencies in northern Uganda and the Central African Republic and long-simmering conflicts in the Occupied Palestinian Territory and in Colombia put at risk the livelihoods of their civilian populations and undermine critical stabilization efforts.

86. In addition to the loss of lives and livelihoods that occur in war zones, prolonged violence significantly alters political, social and economic relations, with immediate as well as more long-term implications. While some undoubtedly benefit from warfare and have a vested interest in its continuation, it is generally the weakest members of societies — civilians, women, children, the elderly, disabled, displaced and refugees — who suffer the most and depend on the support of humanitarian and other actors to survive. For example, in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, lawlessness, the breakdown of government services and the flight of professional expertise to sustain those services have led to the almost total collapse of health and education systems in the areas affected by conflict.

87. The bulk of United Nations, Red Cross and NGO relief efforts is, in principle, dedicated to those who are most vulnerable. It is no less important, however, to help affected communities as a whole to overcome the shocks and stresses that deplete their coping mechanisms. In this way, their ability to push for changes can be restored and they may emerge from the crisis and onto the path of development.

88. Strengthening support and protection for the internally displaced and ensuring a more focused planning and funding of post-crisis transition are some of the ways in which the international community and United Nations Member States can help to stabilize societies and create the environment in which sustainable development can take place. The past year saw some progress in this regard. For example, the United Nations and the Government of Liberia were able to develop a transition strategy and implementation mechanism to help put that country squarely on a development path. And after 10 years of conflict in Sierra Leone, a national recovery strategy resulted in a transitional appeal to fund the reintegration of internally displaced persons and refugees, build national law enforcement institutions and address economic disparity through job creation.

89. Those initiatives, however, are simply first steps, and there is still much to be done. The international community must harmonize its transition planning and fund-raising tools, bring more coherence to needs assessments and build local institutions so that national actors can be involved in their own transition from the beginning. Member States should work to strengthen national laws and national policies to

address the needs and protect the rights of the internally displaced, taking into account the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.[21]

90. The ability to overcome vulnerability in the long term is directly linked with access to humanitarian assistance and protection. As outlined in recent reports to the Security Council on the protection of civilians in armed conflict, among the violations of human rights and humanitarian law that are depressingly familiar are efforts to block or impede access that put millions beyond the reach of humanitarian actors. It is estimated that more than 10 million people in some 20 countries affected by complex emergencies are denied access to the support of humanitarian agencies.

91. Both physical and political factors can impede access. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia and Angola, the constraints of war, underdevelopment and the weak capacity of government institutions have led to the collapse of physical infrastructure, putting millions of people beyond the reach of humanitarian organizations. In the Occupied Palestinian Territory, the construction of a separation barrier has become the greatest physical obstacle to humanitarian access and has severely affected the livelihoods and access to essential services of the Palestinian population.

92. In some countries, political, procedural and administrative obstacles continue to be used as a means of restricting humanitarian access. A case in point is the Sudan, where cumbersome travel and customs authorization procedures limited early attempts to gain access to the displaced in Darfur.

93. Humanitarian access and aid delivery are also severely impeded by a lack of security. There have been many instances where an affected population has been faced with a bleak choice: either to forgo food assistance that has been pending for months or risk murderous attacks by fighters as they seek that assistance. Deliberate attacks on civilians, the recruitment and use of child soldiers and the indiscriminate use of landmines have also affected the security and well-being of populations in zones of conflict.

94. Obtaining and maintaining access to vulnerable populations is critical to humanitarian assistance and protection and will ultimately create an enabling environment for development. Denying access robs civilians of the right to human dignity espoused in the Millennium Declaration. I therefore call on all States concerned to cooperate fully with United Nations and other humanitarian agencies and organizations to ensure the safe and unhindered access of humanitarian personnel, supplies and equipment so that assistance is provided whenever and wherever it is required.

95. HIV/AIDS remains a critical factor in increasing vulnerability to both environmental disasters and complex emergencies. Although sub-Saharan Africa has only 10 per cent of the world's population, it is struggling to cope with about 70 per cent of all HIV-infected people. While the disease is a massive crisis in its own right that requires extraordinary emergency responses, HIV/AIDS is not a short-term phenomenon but has long-term implications that will exacerbate the vulnerability of affected communities for generations. The disease continues to take the lives of the most productive members of society in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Decades of development have been lost and efforts to reduce poverty and improve living standards have been severely undermined. Women now account for nearly 60 per cent of those who are HIV-positive. Coupled with the sexual exploitation and

abuse of women and children that routinely occur in conflicts, the AIDS pandemic is yet another reminder of the importance of concerted preventive measures to reduce threats to the safety, health and well-being of vulnerable populations.

96. International and national HIV/AIDS interventions should be better integrated into humanitarian planning and programming, including in vulnerability assessments. They should cut across humanitarian and development lines and focus on reducing threats to the safety, health and well-being of vulnerable populations over the long term.

Funding

97. The disproportionality of funding for humanitarian emergencies and transition activities continues to impede long-term development. Although the global humanitarian assistance requirements of US$ 3 billion in 2004 are similar to previous years, the pattern of funding humanitarian activities remains uneven, leaving some countries substantially underfinanced. While some high-profile emergencies are well-funded, long-simmering but "forgotten" emergencies, such as those in the Central African Republic and Côte d'Ivoire, have received less than one fifth of their total requirements. Often it is in those countries where the needs are the greatest and most urgent.

98. To address that problem, donors launched the "Good humanitarian donorship" initiative in 2003. The initiative emphasizes greater donor performance and accountability through commitment to a number of key principles and practices that are designed to ensure that humanitarian assistance is based on clearly defined needs. Although progress has been made in improving the assessment and prioritization of needs, increased levels of timely, predictable and flexible funding are required to ensure that financial assistance is equitably applied where and when it is needed. The initiative is ongoing and will be taken up at a meeting of donors in Ottawa in October 2004 that will review progress made by participating donor countries, discuss needs-based funding and consider next steps.

V. Conclusion

99. The United Nations requires a range of key inputs in order to succeed, including vision and political support, adequate financing and staff of the highest calibre. The last year has made it abundantly clear that there are two other prerequisites for the United Nations to fulfil its mission: it requires adequate security to do its job and it requires institutional agility to adapt to changing circumstances in the world.

100. The tragic bombing of the United Nations headquarters in Iraq on 19 August 2003, as well as attacks on United Nations staff in other countries since then, suggest that United Nations personnel are endangered not only by their presence in insecure environments throughout the world but also by the fact that the United Nations itself is increasingly a target.

101. While there will always be risk in working in some of the areas where the United Nations is mandated to carry out its mission, it is necessary to devise new ways of securing our operations. The Organization has begun to introduce a number of measures to improve security and protection arrangements for its staff. In

response to the new threats faced by United Nations agencies, additional risk-mitigation measures have been put in place in the more high-risk areas. These include setting out clearer guidelines on the way in which United Nations staff engage and interact with local populations; greater reliance on national staff for ongoing projects, with support and guidance from outside the country in question; and maximizing the use of common services. The aim is to ensure that the flow of resources to the population in need can continue, without putting at risk the lives of the high-profile and therefore most often targeted international staff.

102. The deliberate targeting and killing of United Nations political, humanitarian and development personnel denies vulnerable groups their right to assistance and developing countries a more prosperous future. It limits the ability of the Organization to carry out its mandate and to meet the challenge of the Millennium Declaration. Additional steps are being proposed to strengthen and unify the security management system of the United Nations system. Those steps will need to be supported in very concrete ways by Member States. If they are not, the very mission of the United Nations will be placed in jeopardy.

103. The present report has outlined many of the challenges we face today in implementing the vision laid out in the Millennium Declaration. Challenges, however, are never static. They evolve, and as such we must be prepared to address not only the problems we see today and the trends we observe but also those that we anticipate for tomorrow.

104. Although the goals of the Millennium Declaration have been fixed by the world's heads of State and Government, the institutional arrangements required to achieve them must be agile. As the primary actors and stakeholders in the international system, the Member States of the United Nations will have to be flexible in their own approaches. On the one hand, developing countries will need to continue the very positive trend towards integrating the Millennium Development Goals into their own planning processes and adopting strategies best suited to improve the prospects of successful reform, where required. On the other hand, donor Governments will need to incorporate the vision of the Millennium Declaration into their own bilateral programmes. This may necessitate a candid review of their own strategies and institutions in order to ensure that they are best suited to the new environment.

105. The United Nations, as an institution, must also prove that it can and will be agile. As I have reported previously, we have made major headway on reform and revitalization in recent years. Adaptation, however, is a constant process. New realities call for new solutions, in terms of both mechanisms and processes. This coming year will be crucial in this regard.

106. In December 2004, the High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, which I constituted to provide a new assessment of the challenges ahead and to recommend the changes which will be required if those challenges are to be met effectively through collective action, will issue its report. That report should provide an important foundation for serious discussion of changes that may well be needed.

107. Simultaneously, we need to prepare for the crucial high-level event that will be convened a year from now. Much has changed since the Millennium Declaration was issued four years ago. More will have already changed by the time the world's leaders meet again to review progress and shape the road ahead.

108. As the Organization prepares to mark its sixth decade in 2005, there could be no more fitting recognition of its many accomplishments and its ongoing promise than to advance in practice the vision of the Millennium Declaration. If all the United Nations Member States engage in serious contemplation and renew their commitment to the Declaration in concrete ways in the course of the coming year, the foundation will be laid for the peoples of the world not just to mark the target date of the Declaration in 2015 but also to celebrate real accomplishments at the conclusion of the seventh decade of the United Nations.

Notes

[1] General Assembly resolution 55/2.

[2] *A Fair Globalization: Creating Opportunities for All* (Geneva, International Labour Office, 2004).

[3] General Assembly resolution 55/2, para. 8.

[4] General Assembly resolution 55/25, annex I.

[5] Ibid., annex II.

[6] Ibid., annex III.

[7] General Assembly resolution 55/255, annex.

[8] General Assembly resolution 58/4, annex.

[9] *Report of the International Conference on Financing for Development, Monterrey, Mexico, 18-22 March 2002* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.02.II.A.7), chap. I, resolution 1, annex.

[10] *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4-15 September 1995* (United Nations publication, Sales No. 96.IV.13), chap. I, resolution 1, annexes I and II.

[11] *Report of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg, South Africa, 26 August-4 September 2002* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.03.II.A.1), chap. I, resolution 2, annex.

[12] A/CONF.191/11.

[13] General Assembly resolution S-26/2, annex.

[14] *Report of the Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, Bridgetown, Barbados, 26 April-6 May 1994*, chap. I, resolution 1, annex II.

[15] FCCC/CP/1997/7/Add.1, decision 1/CP.3, annex.

[16] United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 1771, No. 30822.

[17] Ibid., vol. 1954, No. 33480.

[18] Ibid., vol. 1760, No. 30619.

[19] See UNEP/CBD/ExCOP/1/3 and Corr.1, part two, annex.

[20] General Assembly resolution 55/2, para. 26.

[21] E/CN.4/1998/53/Add.2, annex.

Statistical annex

Millennium Development Goals, targets and indicators, 2004*

Goal 1
Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Target 1
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day

Indicator 1
Population below $1 purchasing power parity (PPP) per day[a]

	Percentage of population living below a $1 per day		
	1990	*1999*	*2001*
Northern Africa	2.6	2.0	1.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	46.9	42.7	46.4
Latin America and the Caribbean	10.9	10.6	10.0
Eastern Asia	33.0	17.8	16.6
Southern Asia	39.7	30.5	30.4
South-Eastern Asia	18.4	10.8	10.2
Western Asia	1.6	4.2	3.7
Commonwealth of Independent States	0.5	10.3	5.0
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	0.4	1.7	2.1

[a] High-income economies, as defined by the World Bank, are excluded.

Indicator 2
Poverty gap ratio[a]

	Mean shortfall from poverty line[b] *(percentage)*		
	1990	*1999*	*2001*
Northern Africa	0.5	0.3	0.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	19.5	18.6	20.5
Latin America and the Caribbean	3.5	4.1	3.5
Eastern Asia	8.9	4.2	3.9
Southern Asia	10.3	7.1	7.1
South-Eastern Asia	3.8	2.0	1.7

* As set out in the United Nations Millennium Declaration (General Assembly resolution 55/2) and the report of the Secretary-General entitled "Road map towards the implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration" (A/56/326); for a complete description and technical details concerning the indicators, see *Indicators for Monitoring the Millennium Development Goals: Definitions, Rationale, Concepts and Sources* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E. 03.XVII.18).

	Mean shortfall from poverty line[a] *(percentage)*		
	1990	*1999*	*2001*
Western Asia	0.4	1.0	0.9
Commonwealth of Independent States	0.2	2.9	1.0
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	0.3	0.6	0.6

[a] The poverty gap ratio measures the magnitude of poverty. Expressed as a percentage of the poverty line, it is obtained by multiplying the proportion of people who live below the poverty line by the difference between the poverty line and the average income of the population living under the poverty line. If, for example, 30 per cent of the population live below the $1 a day line and on average the consumption or income of these people is 20 per cent below the poverty line (i.e., US$ 0.80), then the poverty gap ratio is 6 per cent.

[b] High-income economies, as defined by the World Bank, are excluded.

Indicator 3
Share of poorest quintile in national consumption

No new global or regional data are available.

Target 2
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

Indicator 4
Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age

(a) Total

	Children under five years of age who are underweight (percentage)	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	10	9
Sub-Saharan Africa	32	31
Latin America and the Caribbean	11	8
Eastern Asia	19	10
Southern Asia	53	47
South-Eastern Asia	38	29
Western Asia	11	10
Oceania	..	..

(b) By sex

	Children under-five years of age who are underweight, by sex (percentage in 2002)		
	Boys	*Girls*	*Boys/Girls*
Northern Africa	9	9	1.00
Sub-Saharan Africa	30	29	1.03
Latin America and the Caribbean	8	7	1.14
Eastern Asia	10	11	0.91
Southern Asia	43	46	0.93
South-Eastern Asia	30	29	1.03
Western Asia	17	16	1.06
Oceania	..	..	..
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	7	8	0.88
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	3	3	1.00

Indicator 5

Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption

	Percentage of undernourished in total population	
	1990-1992	*1999-2001*
Northern Africa	5	4
Sub-Saharan Africa	35	33
Latin America and the Caribbean	13	10
Eastern Asia	16	11
Southern Asia	25	22
South-Eastern Asia	17	13
Western Asia	7	10
Oceania	25	27
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	18[a]	27
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	4[a]	4
Other transition countries in Europe[b]	4[a]	4

[a] Data refer to the period 1993-1995.

[b] Including Millennium Development Goals transition countries of Southeastern Europe (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Romania, Serbia and Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) and other European countries (Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia).

Goal 2
Achieve universal primary education

Target 3
Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

Indicator 6
Net enrolment ratio in primary education

	Primary-level enrolees per 100 children of enrolment age		
	1990/91	*1998/99*	*2001/02*
Northern Africa	81.7	88.1	91.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	53.9	57.1	62.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	86.4	94.4	95.7
Eastern Asia	97.7	100.4	92.1
Southern Asia	72.7	79.4	79.7
South-Eastern Asia	92.4	90.1	90.8
Western Asia	81.0	80.2	82.9
Oceania	74.2	77.0	79.4
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	84.7	87.4	94.4
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	91.1	82.6	86.5

Indicator 7
Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5

(a) Total

No global or regional data are available.

(b) Primary completion rate

	Percentage of students enrolled in the final grade of primary school[a]					
	1998/99			*2001/02*		
	Total	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*	*Boys*	*Girls*
Northern Africa	83.9	87.3	80.3	85.6	88.2	82.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	49.4	54.4	44.3	52.9	57.0	48.6
Latin America and the Caribbean	89.0	86.6	91.5	98.1	97.2	99.0
Eastern Asia	107.1	106 7	107.6	102.2	102.1	102.2
Southern Asia	66.3	73.2	58.9	73.1	79.2	66.6
South-Eastern Asia	88.4	89.3	87.5	92.7	92.8	92.6

	Percentage of students enrolled in the final grade of primary school[a]					
	1998/99			2001/02		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
Western Asia	77.2	82.9	71.1	76.1	80.9	71.1
Oceania	64.0	65.0	62.9	63.3	64.6	61.8
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	96.1	96.5	95.6	97.6	98.1	96.9
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	79.4	81.4	77.3	78.8	78.8	78.7

[a] The primary completion rate is calculated through the gross intake rate at the last grade of primary: "Total number of new entrants in the last grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of the theoretical entrance age to the last grade"; see UNESCO Institute for Statistics, *Global Education Digest 2004: Comparing Education Statistics Across the World*.

Indicator 8
Literacy rate of 15-24-year-olds

	Literacy rate, 1990 and 2000-2004 (percentage)					
	1990			2000/04[a]		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Northern Africa	66.3	76.3	55.8	78.5	84.1	72.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	67.4	74.9	59.8	76.6	81	72.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	92.7	92.7	92.7	94.7	94.2	95.2
Eastern Asia	95.5	97.6	93.3	98.9	99.2	98.6
Southern Asia	61.5	71.1	51.0	72.3	81.5	62.5
South-Eastern Asia	94.3	95.5	93.1	95.4	96	94.9
Western Asia	80.1	88.2	71.5	85.6	90.7	80.3
Oceania	73.5	78.5	68.0	81.3	84.4	78.1
Commonwealth of Independent States	99.2	99.2	99.2	99.4	99.4	99.3

[a] Data refer to the latest literacy estimates and projections released in March 2004 by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics for the reference period 2000-2004.

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

Target 4
Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education no later than 2015

Indicator 9
Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education

(a) Primary level

	Ratio of girls' gross enrolment ratios to boys' gross enrolment ratios		
	1990/91	*1998/99*	*2001/02*
Northern Africa	0.82	0.90	0.93
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.83	0.84	0.86
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.98	0.98	0.98
Eastern Asia	0.93	1.01	0.99
Southern Asia	0.76	0.83	0.84
South-Eastern Asia	0.96	0.96	0.97
Western Asia	0.83	0.87	0.89
Oceania	0.90	0.95	0.93
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	0.99	0.98	0.98
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	1.00	0.99	1.00
Developed regions	0.99	1.00	1.00

(b) Secondary level

	Ratio of girls' gross enrolment ratios to boys' gross enrolment ratios	
	1998/99	*2001/02*
Northern Africa	0.94	0.96
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.81	0.79
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.09	1.07
Eastern Asia	..	..
Southern Asia	0.74	0.77
South-Eastern Asia	0.97	0.98
Western Asia	0.76	0.79
Oceania	0.89	0.93
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	0.98	0.97
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	..	1.01
Developed regions	1.01	1.02

(c) Tertiary level

No regional or global figures are available.

Indicator 10
Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24-year-olds

	Ratio of female-to-male youth literacy rates	
	1990	*2000/04[a]*
Northern Africa	0.73	0.86
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.80	0.89
Latin America/Caribbean	1.00	1.01
Eastern Asia	0.96	0.99
Southern Asia	0.72	0.77
South-Eastern Asia	0.97	0.99
Western Asia	0.81	0.89
Oceania	0.87	0.93
Commonwealth of Independent States	1.00	1.00
Developed regions	1.00	1.00

[a] Data refer to the latest literacy estimates and projections released in March 2004 by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics for the reference period 2000-2004.

Indicator 11
Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector

	Share of women in total non-agricultural employment (percentage)	
	1990	*2002*
North Africa	18.9	20.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	..	..
Latin America	38.4	42.9
Eastern Asia	38.2	39.8
Southern Asia	13.3	18.2
South-Eastern Asia	37.2	38.5
Western Asia	17.8	19.2
Oceania	27.8	28.9
Commonwealth of Independent States, transition and other countries in Europe[a]	49.0	48.9
Developed regions	43.1	46.1

[a] Including Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.

Indicator 12
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments

	Percentage of parliamentary seats occupied by women (single or lower house only)[a]		
	1990	*1997*	*2004*
Northern Africa	2.6	1.8	6.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.2	9.0	13.4
Caribbean	22.1	16.6	23.9
Latin America	8.6	10.9	16.1
Eastern Asia	20.2	19.3	18.8
Southern Asia	5.7	5.9	8.5
South-Eastern Asia	10.4	10.8	15.3
Western Asia	4.6	3.0	4.9
Oceania	1.2	1.6	2.4
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	34.4	7.0	9.0
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	..	5.4	8.1
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	27.8	7.5	14.5
Developed regions	13.2	16.5	20.6
Nordic countries[b]	33.9	36.4	39.7

[a] Data refer to January of each year.
[b] Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden.

Goal 4
Reduce child mortality

Target 5
Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate

Indicator 13
Under-five mortality rate

	Deaths per 1,000 live births	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	87	41
Sub-Saharan Africa	186	174
Latin America and the Caribbean	54	34
Eastern Asia	48	38
Southern Asia	126	93
South-Eastern Asia	78	48
Western Asia	68	61
Oceania	86	78
Commonwealth of Independent States	41	44
Developed regions	11	8

Indicator 14
Infant mortality rate

	Deaths per 1,000 live births	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	66	34
Sub-Saharan Africa	109	104
Latin America and the Caribbean	43	28
Eastern Asia	37	30
Southern Asia	87	67
South-Eastern Asia	54	36
Western Asia	53	49
Oceania	63	59
Commonwealth of Independent States	34	35
Developed regions	10	6

Indicator 15
Proportion of 1-year-old children immunized against measles

	Percentage of children aged 12-23 months who received at least one dose of measles vaccine	
	1990	*2003*[a]
Northern Africa	85	93
Sub-Saharan Africa	57	61
Latin America and the Caribbean	77	93
Eastern Asia	98	85
Southern Asia	58	69
South-Eastern Asia	72	79
Western Asia	80	84
Oceania	70	57
Commonwealth of Independent States	..	97
Developed regions	82	92

[a] Not fully comparable with comparison year because some of the country figures for 1990 need to be readjusted; new series for 1990 forthcoming.

Goal 5
Improve maternal health

Target 6
Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio

Indicator 16
Maternal mortality ratio[a]

(No new global or regional data are available; data presented are taken from the previous report (A/58/323).)

	Maternal deaths per 100,000 live births
	2000
Northern Africa	130
Sub-Saharan Africa	920
Latin America and the Caribbean	190
Eastern Asia	55
South-Central Asia	520
South-Eastern Asia	210
Western Asia	190
Oceania	240
Developed regions	20

[a] Regions according to Millennium Development Goals regional composition adopted for 2003 reporting; see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_worldmillennium1.asp.

Indicator 17
Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel[a]

(No new global or regional data are available; data presented are taken from the previous report (A/58/323).)

	Percentage of deliveries	
	1990	*2000*
Northern Africa	39	64
Sub-Saharan Africa	40	43
Latin America and the Caribbean	76	85
Eastern Asia	53	72
South-Central Asia	27	35
South-Eastern Asia	36	59
Western Asia	59	64

[a] Regions according to Millennium Development Goals regional composition adopted for 2003 reporting; see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_worldmillennium1.asp.

Goal 6
Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

Target 7
Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS

Indicator 18
HIV/AIDS prevalence, both sexes

	Percentage of the population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS					
	2001			*2003*		
	Total	*Men*	*Women*	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*
Northern Africa	<0.1	..	..	<0.1	..	..
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.3	6.3	8.3	7.2	6.2	8.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.5
Eastern Asia	<0.1	0.1	<0.1	0.1	0.2	<0.1
Southern Asia	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.5
South-Eastern Asia	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.3
Western Asia	<0.1	..	..	<0.1	..	..
Oceania	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.3
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	<0.1	<0.1	<0.1	0.1	0.1	<0.1
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	0.8	1.0	0.5	1.1	1.5	0.8
Developed regions	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.3

Indicator 19
Condom use as a percentage of the contraceptive prevalence rate

No global or regional data are available.

(a) Condom use at last high-risk sex

	Percentage of the population aged 15-24 who used a condom at last high-risk sex[a] (1998-2002)			
	Women 15-24		*Men 15-24*	
	Number of countries covered by the surveys	*Percentage who used a condom at last high-risk sex[a]*	*Number of countries covered by the surveys*	*Percentage who used a condom at last high-risk sex[a]*
Sub-Saharan Africa	20	23	19	41
Latin America and the Caribbean	4	24	1	30
Southern Asia (India)	1	51	1	59
Commonwealth of Independent States	2	27	2	61

[a] Percentage of young women and men aged 15-24 reporting the use of a condom during sexual intercourse with a non-regular sexual partner in the last 12 months, among those who had such a partner in the last 12 months.

(b) Percentage of population aged 15-24 with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS

	Percentage of population with comprehensive knowledge[a] (1998-2002)			
	Women 15-24		*Men 15-24*	
	Number of countries covered by the surveys	*Percentage who have comprehensive knowledge[a]*	*Number of countries covered by the surveys*	*Percentage who have comprehensive knowledge[a]*
Sub-Saharan Africa	28	20	10	30
Latin America and the Caribbean	6	28	1	24
Eastern Asia (Mongolia)	1	32	0	..
South-Eastern Asia	3	13	0	..
Commonwealth of Independent States	4	5	1	8
Developed regions (Albania)	1	0	0	..

[a] Percentage of young women and men aged 15-24 who correctly identify the two major ways of preventing the sexual transmission of HIV (using condoms and limiting sex to one faithful, uninfected partner), who reject two common local misconceptions and who know that a healthy-looking person can transmit the AIDS virus.

Indicator 20
Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14

	Orphans to non-orphans school attendance ratio[a] (1998/01)	
	Number of countries covered by the surveys	*Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans[a]*
Sub-Saharan Africa	35	0.83
Latin America and the Caribbean	6	0.83
South-Eastern Asia (Cambodia)	1	0.71

[a] Ratio of the current school attendance rate of children aged 10-14 both of whose biological parents have died to the current school attendance rate of children aged 10-14 both of whose parents are still alive and who currently live with at least one biological parent.

Target 8
Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

Indicator 21
Prevalence of and deaths associated with malaria[a]

(No new global or regional data are available; data presented are taken from the previous report (A/58/323).)

	Number of deaths per 100,000 children aged 0-4 years (2000)
Northern Africa	47
Sub-Saharan Africa	791
Latin America and the Caribbean	1
Eastern Asia	0
South-Central Asia	6
South-Eastern Asia	2
Western Asia	26
Oceania	2
Developed regions	0

[a] Regions according to Millennium Development Goals regional composition adopted for 2003 reporting; see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_worldmillennium1.asp.

Data on malaria prevalence are not available.

Indicator 22
Population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures

(No new global or regional data are available; data presented are taken from the previous report (A/58/323).)

(a) Prevention: children under 5 who sleep under insecticide-treated bed nets

	1999/2003 (percentage)
Africa (31 countries)	2.1

(b) Treatment: children under 5 with fever who are appropriately treated

	1998/2003 (percentage)
Africa (30 countries)	38.3

Indicator 23
Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis

(a) Prevalence

	Number of cases per 100,000 population (excluding HIV-infected)		
	2000	*2001*	*2002*
Northern Africa	55	54	52
Sub-Saharan Africa	463	480	492
Latin America and the Caribbean	99	95	91
Eastern Asia	268	266	265
Southern Asia	413	375	343
South-Eastern Asia	505	489	432
Western Asia	85	83	84
Oceania	455	443	388
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	133	138	135
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	156	162	170

(b) Deaths

	Number of deaths per 100,000 population (excluding HIV-infected)		
	2000	*2001*	*2002*
Northern Africa	4	4	4
Sub-Saharan Africa	52	54	55
Latin America and the Caribbean	10	9	9
Eastern Asia	21	21	20
Southern Asia	42	39	36
South-Eastern Asia	48	46	43
Western Asia	9	9	9
Oceania	41	40	39
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	14	15	15
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	17	18	19
Developed regions	2	2	2

Indicator 24
Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course (DOTS)

(a) New cases detected under DOTS

	Percentage of estimated cases notified to WHO		
	2000	*2001*	*2002*
Northern Africa	82	79	81
Sub-Saharan Africa	36	38	43
Latin America and the Caribbean	43	42	45
Eastern Asia	28	29	28
Southern Asia	14	23	30
South-Eastern Asia	39	44	50
Western Asia	26	26	25
Oceania	13	13	20
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	37	34	47
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	4	5	5
Developed regions	22	27	39

(b) DOTS cases successfully treated

	Percentage of DOTS cases successfully treated	
	2000 cohort	*2001 cohort*
Northern Africa	88	85
Sub-Saharan Africa	72	71
Latin America and the Caribbean	81	83
Eastern Asia	94	96
Southern Asia	83	85
South-Eastern Asia	86	86
Western Asia	81	83
Oceania	76	76
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	78	77
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	68	67
Developed regions	78	73

Goal 7
Ensure environmental sustainability

Target 9
Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources

Indicator 25
Proportion of land area covered by forest

	Percentage of land area	
	1990	*2000*
Northern Africa	1.0	1.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	29.3	27.1
Caribbean	24.4	25.0
Latin America	50.4	48.0
Eastern Asia	15.4	17.0
Southern Asia	13.5	13.3
South-Eastern Asia	53.9	48.6
Western Asia	3.1	3.1
Oceania	68.0	65.7
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	5.1	5.8
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	48.9	49.2
Developed regions	25.7	25.9
World	30.3	29.6

Indicator 26
Area protected to maintain biological diversity[a]

	Ratio of protected area to total territorial areas (terrestrial and sea)			
	1990	*1995*	*2000*	*2004*
Northern Africa	3.8	3.8	4.1	4.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	9.4	9.8	10.0	10.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	12.6	15.3	16.8	17.3
Eastern Asia	7.8	8.9	10.8	11.8
South-Central Asia	4.5	5.1	5.3	5.5
South-Eastern Asia	5.3	6.5	7.6	7.8
Western Asia	4.1	17.8	17.9	18.0
Oceania	3.5	6.1	7.0	7.1
Developed regions	8.7	9.7	11.4	11.7

[a] Regions according to Millennium Development Goals regional composition adopted for 2003 reporting; see http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_worldmillennium1.asp.

Indicator 27
Energy use per $1 gross domestic product (GDP) (purchasing power parity (PPP))

	Consumption of kg oil equivalent per $1,000 GDP (PPP)	
	1990	*2001*
Latin America and the Caribbean	187	177
Northern Africa	202	196
Sub-Saharan Africa	400	406
Eastern Asia	294	216
Southern Asia	326	256
South-Eastern Asia	223	237
Western Asia	268	327
Oceania	..	..
Commonwealth of Independent States	613	644
Transition countries in Europe[a]	527	484
High-income countries[b]	233	214

[a] Including transition countries in Europe classified by the World Bank as low or middle-income economies.
[b] As defined by the World Bank.

Indicator 28
Carbon dioxide emissions and consumption of ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs)

(a) Carbon dioxide emission: total and per capita

	Millions of metric tons of CO_2			*Per capita emissions (metric tons)*		
	1990	*1995*	*2000*	*1990*	*1995*	*2000*
Fossil fuel sources[a]						
World[b]	22 460	23 468	24 238	4.25	4.14	4.00
Developed regions[c]	14 521	13 097	13 402	12.06	11.21	11.27
Developing regions	6 749	9 163	9 597	1.68	2.07	2.01
	1990[d]		*2001[d]*	*1990[d]*		*2001[d]*
All activity sources[e]						
Annex I countries[f]	14 526		14 050		13.0	12.1

[a] Total CO_2 emissions from fossil fuels (expressed in millions of metric tons of CO_2) includes CO_2 emissions from solid fuel consumption, liquid fuel consumption, gas fuel consumption; cement production; and gas flaring (United States Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center).

[b] The sum of fossil-fuel CO_2 emissions for regions (developed and developing) does not equal the global total because global estimates are based on energy production data while national and regional estimates are based on "net apparent energy consumption" estimates, using production and trade (imports, exports, stock changes) data. The difference between the global estimates and the sum of regional estimates is about 5 per cent.

[c] Including CIS countries in Europe.

[d] In order to assess trends for annex I countries as a group, the aggregate figures for 2001 include data referring to a previous year for countries where 2001 data were not available. Data refer to 1999 for Liechtenstein and the Russian Federation and to 1996 for Slovenia. For 1990, the aggregate figure includes data referring to 1991 for Hungary.

[e] Excluding emissions/sinks from land-use change and forestry.

[f] Based on the annual national emission inventories of annex I countries (Australia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Monaco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States of America) that report to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change; non-annex I countries do not have annual reporting obligations.

(b) Ozone-depleting CFCs

	CFC consumption in ODP[a] ton			
	1986	*1990*	*1996*	*2002*
World	1 081	732	175	91
Industrialized regions	938	618	24	1
Developing regions	143	114	151	90

[a] Ozone-depleting potential.

Indicator 29
Proportion of population using solid fuels

No new global or regional data are available.

Target 10
Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation

Indicator 30
Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural

	Percentage of population					
	1990			*2002*		
	Total	*Urban*	*Rural*	*Total*	*Urban*	*Rural*
Northern Africa	88	95	82	90	96	84
Sub-Saharan Africa	49	82	36	58	82	45
Latin America and the Caribbean	83	93	58	89	95	69
Eastern Asia	72	99	60	78	93	68
Southern Asia	71	90	64	84	94	80
South-Eastern Asia	73	91	65	79	91	70
Western Asia	83	94	65	88	95	74
Oceania	51	92	39	52	91	40
Commonwealth of Independent States	92	97	83	93	99	82
Developed regions	100	100	99	98	100	94

Indicator 31
Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural

	Percentage of population					
	1990			*2002*		
	Total	*Urban*	*Rural*	*Total*	*Urban*	*Rural*
Northern Africa	65	84	47	73	89	57
Sub-Saharan Africa	32	54	24	36	55	26
Latin America and the Caribbean	69	82	35	75	84	44
Eastern Asia	24	64	7	45	69	30
Southern Asia	20	54	7	37	66	24
South-Eastern Asia	48	67	39	61	79	49
Western Asia	79	96	52	79	95	49
Oceania	58	83	50	55	84	46
Commonwealth of Independent States	84	93	68	83	92	65
Developed regions	100	100	99	98	100	92

Target 11
By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum-dwellers

Indicator 32
Proportion of households with access to secure tenure

	Slum population (millions)		*Percentage of urban population living in slums*	
	1990	*2001*	*1990*	*2001*
Northern Africa	21.7	21.4	28.2	37.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	101.0	166.2	71.9	72.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	110.8	127.6	31.9	35.4
Eastern Asia	150.8	193.8	36.4	41.1
Eastern Asia excluding China	12.8	15.6	25.4	25.3
Southern Asia	198.7	253.1	59	63.7
South-Eastern Asia	49.0	56.8	28	36.8
Western Asia	28.6	40.7	35.3	34.4
Oceania	0.4	0.5	24.1	24.5
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	9.7	9.8	29.4	30.3
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	9.2	8.9	6	6
Developed regions	41.8	45.2	6	6
Landlocked developing countries	46.5	47.3	56.5	48.4
Small island developing states	5.7	7.3	24.4	24.0
Least developed countries	81.9	140.1	78.2	76.3

Goal 8
Develop a global partnership for development

Target 12
Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system (includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction — both nationally and internationally)

Target 13
Address the special needs of the least developed countries (includes tariff- and quota-free access for least developed countries exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction)

Target 14
Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly)

Target 15
Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term

Official development assistance (ODA)

Indicator 33
Net ODA to all developing and least developed countries

(a) Annual total assistance (US$ billions)

	1990	*2001*	*2002*	*2003*
All developing countries	54.3	52.4	58.3	68.5
Least developed countries	15.2	12.0	15.1	..

(b) Share of OECD/DAC donors gross national income (percentage)

	1990	*2001*	*2002*	*2003*
All developing countries	0.33	0.22	0.23	0.25
Least developed countries	0.09	0.05	0.06	..

Indicator 34
Proportion of bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors allocated to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation)

	Percentage of bilateral, sector-allocable aid			
	1995-1996	*1997-1998*	*1999-2000*	*2001-2002*
All OECD/DAC countries	8	11	13.5	17

Indicator 35
Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied

	Percentage of aid that is untied	
	1990	*2002*
All OECD/DAC countries*	67.6	84.8

* Based on only about 40 per cent of total ODA commitments from OECD/DAC countries, as it excludes technical cooperation and administrative costs, as well as all ODA from Austria, Luxembourg, New Zealand and the United States that do not report the tying status of their ODA.

Indicator 36
ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes

	ODA as a percentage of GNIs of recipients	
	1990	*2002*
Landlocked developing countries	5.9	7.5

Indicator 37
ODA received in small island developing States as a proportion of their gross national incomes

	ODA as a percentage of GNIs of recipients	
	1990	*2002*
Small island developing States	2.6	1.0

Market access

Indicator 38
Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and least developed countries, admitted free of duty

	Percentage of total developed country imports admitted free of duty			
	1996	*2000*	*2001*	*2002*
(a) Excluding arms				
Developing countries	46	62	61	57
Least developed countries	68	77	77	81
(b) Excluding arms and oil				
Developing countries	47	61	59	56
Least developed countries	77	70	70	75

Indicator 39
Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries

	Percentage			
	1996	*2000*	*2001*	*2002*
(a) Agriculture				
Developing countries	10.5	10.1	10.0	9.9
Least developed countries	4.3	4.1	3.3	3.3
(b) Textile				
Developing countries	8.1	7.2	7.4	6.7
Least developed countries	4.2	3.8	3.7	3.6
(c) Clothing				
Developing countries	12.2	11.5	12.2	11.5
Least developed countries	8.5	8.1	8.0	8.3

Indicator 40
Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross domestic product

(No new global or regional data are available; data presented are taken from the previous report (A/58/323).)

	Agricultural support estimate in OECD countries	
	1990	*2002*
As percentage of OECD countries GDP	1.9	1.2
In billions of US$	351	318

Indicator 41
Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity

	Percentage of total ODA of recipients
	2001-2002 average
Americas	4.0
Europe	9.8
Africa	4.4
Asia	3.0
Oceania	3.8
Global programmes	6.6

Debt sustainability

Indicator 42

Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points

	Number of countries	
	2000	*2004[a]*
Reached completion point	1	14
Reached decision point but not completion point	21	13
Yet to be considered for decision point	16	11
Total eligible countries	**38**	**38**

[a] As of July 2004.

Indicator 43

Debt relief committed under HIPC Initiative

(US$ billions (cumulative))

	2000	*2004[a]*
To countries that reached decision or completion point	34	52

[a] As of 11 March 2004.

Indicator 44

Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services

	Ratio of debt service to export of goods and services	
	1990	*2002*
All low and middle-income countries[a]	19	18
Heavily indebted poor countries	20	9

[a] As defined by the World Bank.

Target 16
In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth

Indicator 45
Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years

(a) Unemployment rate of 15-24-year-olds

	1993			2003		
	Total	*Women*	*Men*	*Total*	*Women*	*Men*
Northern Africa	30.7	39.7	27.1	29.4	39.1	25.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	21.9	19.5	23.7	21.1	18.6	23.0
Latin America and the Caribbean	12.4	15.5	10.7	16.6	20.8	14.0
Eastern Asia	4.8	4.1	5.5	7.0	5.8	8.1
Southern Asia	13.3	14.6	12.7	14.6	17.1	13.5
South-Eastern Asia	8.8	9.3	8.4	16.5	17.7	15.6
Western Asia	19.0	19.6	18.7	20.8	22.5	20.1
Oceania	7.5	7.8	7.3	8.7	9.2	8.4
Commonwealth of Independent States	9.4	9.0	9.7	14.6	14.7	14.5
Developed regions	16.7	16.5	16.8	14.6	14.2	15.0

(b) Ratio of youth unemployment rate to adult unemployment rate, 1993-2003

	1993	*2000*	*2003*
Northern Africa	3.2	2.9	3.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.6	3.5	3.5
Latin America and the Caribbean	2.8	2.7	3.1
Eastern Asia	3.1	3.0	2.9
Southern Asia	5.6	5.8	5.8
South-Eastern Asia	3.9	5.0	4.8
Western Asia	3.4	3.3	3.0
Oceania	3.1	3.3	3.3
Commonwealth of Independent States	3.1	2.4	2.5
Developed regions	2.4	2.4	2.3

(c) Share of youth unemployment in total unemployment, 1993-2003

	1993	*2000*	*2003*
Northern Africa	51.5	48.8	46.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	62.0	62.3	62.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	49.7	44.8	48.6
Eastern Asia	52.6	41.6	41.0
Southern Asia	64.3	64.0	62.1
South-Eastern Asia	58.2	55.4	58.2
Western Asia	55.9	52.3	48.3
Oceania	59.2	56.5	55.6
Commonwealth of Independent States	38.1	28.0	29.6
Developed regions	30.1	27.6	26.2

Target 17
In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries

Indicator 46
Population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis

No new global or regional data are available.

Target 18
In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications

Indicator 47
Telephone lines and cellular subscribers

	Number of telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	2.9	17.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	1.0	5.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	6.4	36.2
Eastern Asia	2.4	37.8
Southern Asia	0.7	5.3
South-Eastern Asia	1.4	16.3
Western Asia	10.0	42.3
Oceania	3.4	9.4
Commonwealth of Independent States	12.5	28.8
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	13.8	48.2
Developed regions	45.4	120.8

Indicator 48
Personal computers and Internet users

(a) Personal computers

	Number of personal computers per 100 population	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	0.1	1.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.3	1.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.6	6.8
Eastern Asia	0.3	5.2
Southern Asia	0.0	1.0
South-Eastern Asia	0.3	2.7
Western Asia	1.2	5.6
Oceania	0.0	6.1
Commonwealth of Independent States	0.3	6.7
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	0.2	5.9
Developed regions	11.1	44.1

(b) Internet users

	Number of Internet users per 100 population	
	1990	*2002*
Northern Africa	0.0	2.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.0	1.0
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.0	8.2
Eastern Asia	0.0	7.0
Southern Asia	0.0	1.5
South-Eastern Asia	0.0	4.6
Western Asia	0.0	6.3
Oceania	0.0	3.6
Commonwealth of Independent States	0.0	3.1
Transition countries of Southeastern Europe	0.0	7.5
Developed regions	0.3	42.9

* * *

Sources
United Nations Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the Millennium Development Goals Indicators and the United Nations Millennium Indicators Database (http://millenniumindicators.un.org); the reports and composition of the Expert Group may be accessed at the Millennium Indictors Database Internet site under "Key documents and sources" (http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_links.asp).

Notes

Two dots (..) indicate that data are not available or are not reported separately.

Except where indicated, regional groupings are based on United Nations geographical regions, with some modifications necessary to create, to the extent possible, homogenous groups of countries for analysis and presentation. The regional composition adopted for 2004 reporting of Millennium Development Goals indicators is available at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_worldmillennium.asp.

The Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) comprises Belarus, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation and Ukraine in Europe; and Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan in Asia.

Many of the indicators are presented for the developing regions only. Where shown, in most cases for comparative purposes, "developed regions" comprises Europe (except CIS countries), Canada, the United States, Australia, Japan and New Zealand. Developed countries always include transition countries in Europe unless the latter are presented separately in the tables as "transition countries of Southeastern Europe".

United Nations A/59/282/Corr.1

General Assembly

Distr.: General
22 September 2004
Original: English

Fifty-ninth session
Item 56 of the provisional agenda*
Follow-up to the outcome of the Millennium Summit

Implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration

Report of the Secretary-General

Corrigendum

* A/59/150.

04-52035 (E) 270904

Statistical annex

Goal 7, target 9, indicator 28 (a)

The table presenting data on indicator 28 (a) *should read*:

Indicator 28
Carbon dioxide emissions and consumption of ozone-depleting chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs)

(a) Carbon dioxide emission: Total and per capita

	Millions of metric tons of CO_2			*Per capita emissions, metric tons*		
	1990	***1995***	***2000***	***1990***	***1995***	***2000***
Fossil fuel sources[a]						
World[b]	22 460	23 468	24 238	4.25	4.14	4.00
Developed regions[c]	14 521	13 097	13 402	12.06	11.21	11.27
Developing regions	6 749	9 163	9 597	1.68	2.07	2.01
	1990[d]		*2001[d]*	*1990[d]*		*2001[d]*
All activity sources[e]						
Annex I countries[f]	14 526		14 050	13.0		12.1

[a] Total CO_2 emissions from fossil fuels (expressed in millions of metric tons of CO_2) includes CO_2 emissions from solid fuel consumption, liquid fuel consumption, gas fuel consumption; cement production; and gas flaring (United States Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center).

[b] The sum of fossil-fuel CO_2 emissions for regions (developed and developing) does not equal the global total because global estimates are based on energy production data while national and regional estimates are based on "net apparent energy consumption" estimates, using production and trade (imports, exports, stock changes) data. The difference between the global estimates and the sum of regional estimates is about 5 per cent.

[c] Including CIS countries in Europe.

[d] In order to assess trends for annex I countries as a group, the aggregate figures for 2001 include data referring to a previous year for countries where 2001 data were not available. Data refer to 1999 for Liechtenstein and the Russian Federation, to 1998 for Lithuania and Ukraine, and to 1996 for Slovenia. For 1990, the aggregate figure includes data referring to 1991 for Hungary.

[e] Excluding emissions/sinks from land-use change and forestry.

[f] Based on the annual national emission inventories of annex I countries (Australia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Monaco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United States of America) that report to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change; non-annex I countries do not have annual reporting obligations.

Goal 7, target 9, indicator 28 (b)

The table presenting data on indicator 28 (b) *should read*:

(b) Ozone-depleting CFCs

	CFC consumption in thousands of ODP[a] tons			
	1986	*1990*	*1996*	*2002*
World	1 081	732	175	91
Industrialized regions	938	618	24	1
Developing regions	143	114	151	90

[a] Ozone-depleting potential.

Goal 7, target 11, indicator 32

The table presenting data on indicator 32 *should read*:

Indicator 32
Proportion of households with access to secure tenure

	Slum population (millions)		*Percentage of urban population living in slums*	
	1990	*2001*	*1990*	*2001*
Northern Africa	21.7	21.4	37.7	28.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	101.0	166.2	72.3	71.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	110.8	127.6	35.4	31.9
Eastern Asia	150.8	193.8	41.1	36.4
Eastern Asia excluding China	12.8	15.6	25.3	25.4
Southern Asia	198.7	253.1	63.7	59.0
South-Eastern Asia	49.0	56.8	36.8	28.0
Western Asia	28.6	40.7	34.4	35.3
Oceania	0.4	0.5	24.5	24.1
Commonwealth of Independent States (Asia)	9.7	9.8	30.3	29.4
Commonwealth of Independent States (Europe)	9.2	8.9	6.0	6.0
Developed regions	41.8	45.2	6.0	6.0
Landlocked developing countries	46.5	47.3	48.4	56.5
Small island developing States	5.7	7.3	24.0	24.4
Least developed countries	81.9	140.1	76.3	78.2

United Nations A/59/283

General Assembly

Distr.: General
20 August 2004

Original: English

Fifty-ninth session
Item 42 of the provisional agenda*
The role of the United Nations in promoting a new global human order

Letter dated 18 August 2004 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Guyana to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

Upon the instructions of my Government, I have the honour to submit herewith Guyana's response to operative paragraph 3 of General Assembly resolution 57/12 on the role of the United Nations in promoting a New Global Human Order (see annex). I would be grateful if the present letter and its annex could be circulated as a document of the General Assembly under item 42 of the provisional agenda of the fifty-ninth regular session.

(*Signed*) George **Talbot**
Chargé d'affaires a.i.

* A/59/150.

04-46694 (E) 130904

Annex to the letter dated 18 August 2004 from the Chargé d'affaires a.i. of the Permanent Mission of Guyana to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General

Memorandum

THE ROLE OF THE UNITED NATIONS IN PROMOTING A NEW GLOBAL HUMAN ORDER

I. Introduction

The international community faces new challenges in preventing conflict and eradicating poverty, as well as promoting economic stability, economic growth with equity and sustainable development. In response, it has been pursued a number of important initiatives aimed at addressing issues such as debt reduction, humanitarian relief and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. These efforts have served to underline the importance of multilateral approaches in addressing global problems.

Despite the importance of these efforts, there is a tendency for issues to be addressed in a somewhat disjointed manner. This has often led to a situation in which international organisations are assigned new roles and responsibilities without the requisite resources to carry out such responsibilities. In addition, these trends have in some cases contributed to the side-lining of the United Nations and have provoked contentious debates about ownership, democratic accountability, and the principle of universality. The situation is further compounded by the phenomenon of globalization which has been the driving force behind the structural transformation of the global economy and the movement away from the traditional conception of sovereignty to new forms of governance that have posed difficult challenges for nation states.

All of this emphasises the need for the adoption of an overarching philosophy of development designed to integrate within a common framework the various initiatives on which the international community has embarked in recent years.

II. The Context and Rationale of the New Global Human Order

The call for a New Global Human Order is intended to restore development to the centre of the international agenda and to promote multilateral approaches to the solution of global problems through the adoption of a holistic framework of development. This framework focuses on integrating the economic, environmental, social, cultural and political aspects of development and highlighting its multidimensional character in order to realise the goals enshrined in the United Nations Charter. It emphasises the importance of fairer global rules designed to expand the policy space assigned to developing countries in the implementation of development strategies that fully address the terms of their integration into the global economy. The adoption of a holistic framework of development could also effectively address the disruptions caused by the negative impact of the on-going structural transformation in the global economy.

The challenge for many developing countries is to strengthen their capacity to participate in the global economy on terms that safeguard their economic, social and cultural objectives and the development of democratic systems of governance. A number of studies generated by the UNDP Human Development Reports have emphasised the two-way relationship between human development and economic growth. These studies suggest that economic growth advances human development when such growth is sustainable. On the other hand, higher levels of human development generate higher rates of economic growth as healthier and more educated people contribute to sustainable economic performance through increased productivity. It is in this context that the call for a New Global Human Order is advocated based on the recognition that development is a multi-dimensional phenomenon which can only be truly realised in an integrated and holistic framework.

The degree to which societies can develop the capabilities to effectively manage far-reaching economic, social, technological and environmental transformations will depend upon the existence and acceptance of a strong commitment to global governance. The pursuit of bilateral, regional and other cooperative arrangements among States in some specific areas, while desirable, is not sufficient to tackle the challenges facing the international community. Multilateralism will need to be strengthened to respond to these challenges. in these circumstances, the United Nations remains the appropriate institution for dealing with these issues in a holistic and integrated manner.

III. Objectives of the Proposal for a New Global Human Order

The proposal for a New Global Human Order seeks to build a strong political consensus and a broad-based global partnership to combat poverty and promote economic security for all the world's peoples. These must be based on a long-term integrated approach to development that takes full account of how governments, markets and societies interact in order provide optimum development results.

Political commitment on the part of the international community is an essential prerequisite to successfully address the challenges of global poverty, inequality and the promotion of genuine human development. The forging of an enlightened international partnership involving all relevant actors, including individual member states, the international community, the private sector and non-governmental organisations, is critical to this process. Such a partnership should seek to build on the important work done by the United Nations in the field of development, including the Millennium Development Goals and the outcomes emanating from the series of UN Conferences held during and after the 1990s, and, more importantly, to provide new impetus for the implementation of the many developmental initiatives undertaken under the auspices of the United Nations. To this end, the proposal for a New Global Human Order envisages the co-ordination by the United Nations of the efforts leading to a new global partnership for effective action. This effort must be people-centred, and should aim to promote the social and economic welfare of the peoples of the world. It should also sensitize the international community to the compelling need to focus not merely on financial and economic factors but also on moral and social imperatives that place people's livelihood at the centre of the development effort.

A broad international consensus for development and a co-ordinated international effort are key to the global endeavour to eradicate poverty and hunger in our lifetime. The proposal of a New Global

Human Order aims to provide an over-arching holistic framework that encompasses all the pillars upon which development must be founded. It seeks to link issues of vital importance to the developing world with the concerns in the developed countries and to advance creative solutions to common problems. It emphasises the pursuit of collective self-interest in dealing with the key economic and social issues faced by all peoples. It calls for a focus on changing structures both at the national and global levels to make them compatible with the goal of promoting growth with equity, with an increased emphasis on the empowerment of people so that they can make informed choices and participate effectively in the decision-making process.

IV. Elements of a Framework for the New Global Human Order

The framework focuses on strengthening multilateral development cooperation, particularly the role of the United Nations, which is driven by the principles set out in the United Nations Charter and the international instruments and treaties that have been promulgated since 1945. The framework advocates fulfilling the mandate laid out in the United Nations Charter of promoting social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom. in this endeavour, greater emphasis will need to be placed on the forging of a new consensus premised on the adoption of a holistic approach to socio-economic development. This should be based on a number of fundamental elements, namely:

- A commitment to the promotion of a holistic approach to development based on the principle of equity.

- The development of equitable north-south representation in inter-governmental fora.

- The establishment of a balanced relationship between the role of the state and markets with the objective of ensuring optimum development outcomes.

- The development of suitable arrangements for the effective participation of governments, the private sector and civil society in multilateral development cooperation.

- Equity and justice should be the hallmark of international relations. In pursuit of this goal, special emphasis should be placed on accelerated development of the developing countries in order to reduce the growing inequality between developed and developing countries. In this context, programmes for the eradication of poverty should be supported by the international community through provision of adequate resources. The policy and institutional framework sanctioned by the international community should also accommodate the autonomy of national governments to determine their own development path.

- Debt reduction and poverty alleviation programmes should not be viewed as 'trade-offs' with investment and growth. A high rate of economic growth should be a principal goal for all developing countries based on the development of the requisite human resources. This should be balanced by taking full account of the structural differences between and

within sectors, and the various social segments of the population, and the need to preserve the ecological base of the economy.

- Reform of the international financial architecture should address the need for new resources for development and for greater transparency and collaboration between borrowers and lenders. This should include the development of a closer working relationship between the Bretton Woods institutions, the World Trade Organisation and the United Nations General Assembly and ECOSOC.

- Urgent steps should be taken to increase the level of Official Development Assistance to fulfil the United Nations target of 0.7 percent of the GNP of the developed countries which should be complemented by innovative approaches to financing.

- Urgent attention should be given to the need for a rapid and definitive resolution of the debt problem facing many developing countries.

- Labour should not be treated as if it were a commodity. The special character of human resources must be recognised in the process of production, and adequate attention should be given to the protection of vulnerable groups from discrimination and poverty; reduction in wage differentials; and the provision of job security and productivity-enhancing motivation to the labour force.

- The opening of markets and the provision improved access of developed countries' markets to the exports of developing countries should be emphasised.

- Negotiations on trade and development should take account of the need to promote equity, social welfare and human development.

- Strengthening the role of the State as the principal arbiter in the process of development and guaranteeing access of its citizens to social services, including health and education. A number of studies have demonstrated that the provision of basic health and education constitutes the most decisive factor in generating equity and improved livelihood.

The promotion of the New Global Human Order is premised on the assumption that, given the universal character of the United Nations, its capabilities in the field of economic and social development must be strengthened. This includes:

- Strengthening of capacity of the United Nations in the development field which will require that the Bretton Woods institutions and the World Trade Organisation be brought into a closer working relationship with the United Nations General Assembly and ECOSOC. The United Nations should be the main forum for global policy-making. The existing institutional framework and arrangements for economic cooperation are neither adaptive to the new forms of global economic interdependence, nor to the effective

integration of the developing countries into the international economy. A strengthening of the multilateral process is not only essential for the sharing of the benefits of global prosperity but also of economic, financial, and political responsibilities. Experience has clearly demonstrated that multilateralism is a better guarantee of global prosperity than bilateralism.

- The development of a "deprivational index" as advocated by Anand and Sen (1997) that concentrates exclusively on the deprived and impoverished to complement the UNDP Human Development Index should be pursued and operationalised. Similarly, the notion of a 'Commitment to Development Index (CDI) espoused in the 2003 UNDP Human Development Report should also be adopted by the international community.

- Financial rules and regulations for the global economy should be formulated in a manner that fully addresses the needs of developing countries in an economic environment that establishes an appropriate balance between rights, equity and efficiency.

- Greater support for the protection of the environment and enhancement of ecological conditions in developing countries should be promoted through capacity building and the implementation of effective environmental management strategies at the national, regional and global levels.

Implicit in the call for the New Global Human Order is the view that the approach taken so far in discussions on reshaping the world economy has not only neglected a number of fundamental issues as outlined above, but has also become somewhat disjointed and could therefore benefit from a more integrated focus. The principal benefit of the New Global Human Order is that it offers policy makers from developed and developing countries a philosophical basis for reshaping the international economic system in a manner that emphasises development and human welfare as a central imperative.

August 2004